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ART. I.—THE AMERICAN FUR TRADE.

THE operations of the fur trade, which for more than two centuries has been in existence in our western forests, and which is now acting within the boundaries of the United States, are not generally known to the people of the country. This is not strange, for it has achieved its demi-savage triumphs in silence and solitude. Its theatre of action has been an unmeasured wilderness, stretching thousands of miles from Hudson's Bay to the mouth of the Mississippi, and from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the banks of the Pacific, remote from the central points of civilization. It has launched its fleets of canoes upon waters never before navigated by white men, and waged its wars with wild beasts. It has coursed the tracks of streams which had not before been crossed, penetrated the twilight of the most dense forests, kindled its camp fires in the remotest Indian village, and followed the track of the most distant Indian trail. It has skimmed the surface of the largest lakes in the world with its light barks, followed the meandering of the most obscure rivulet to find the dam of the beaver, and traversed the ocean-like prairies of the west, for the herds of elks and buffaloes which made them their ranging grounds. It has carried its packs of furs over rivers and through fens. It has scaled mountain heights covered with eternal snows, and grappled with their savage monarch, the grisly bear, in his icy den. It has silently collected its cargoes of furs and peltry into their respective places of shipment on the seaboard, and transported them to foreign ports, adding vast sums to the amount of national wealth. Within our own territory its enterprises are probably destined to exercise an important bearing upon our foreign relations, for they involve nothing less than the territorial boundaries of the United States. We design in this paper to sketch an outline of its progress within our own domain, as well as its general features in the northern part of our continent, it having been the grand commercial enterprise of the west when the west was a mere wilderness.

It is well known, that during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the principal monarchs of Europe sent out their ships to explore our coasts, for the

purpose of enlarging their dominions, and to acquire the mines of gold which were supposed to abound in the soil. As early as 1534, Jacques Cartier had been despatched by the French government for that object; and, during the following year, we find his keels ploughing the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Nearly a century afterwards, in 1603, M. Pontgrave, an intelligent partner in a house at St. Malo, in France, aided by M. Chatte, the governor of Dieppe, had projected an expedition for the establishment of colonies along the St. Lawrence, and the prosecution of the fur trade upon the wide wilderness which was spread out around it. This company was led by Samuel Champlain, a partner, and subsequently the governor of Canada, who succeeded, in 1608, in founding the city of Quebec; thus planting the basis of French power in that part of the continent which continued to rule it for a century.

It was soon ascertained by the French colonists, who established themselves upon the St. Lawrence and the bordering lakes and streams, that no gems and gold abounded in the soil, but that a mighty wilderness was stretched around them, broken by vast lakes, and intersected by gigantic arteries of navigation, and that it was filled with wild animals, whose furs were of great value in the foreign markets. The facilities for this traffic, held out by the western portion of the country, did not escape the keen sight of the Cardinal de Richelieu, then in the full career of his glory, who, in order to consolidate the operations of the French colonists, organized in 1627 what was denominated the *Company of New France*, a chartered body comprised of one hundred members, and granted two ships of war by the French crown. From that time the French colonies began to scatter themselves along the great lakes and rivers of the west, and the most effective operations of the fur trade were commenced.

The design of the French government, in sending out explorers, and issuing exclusive charters at the west, was to found a permanent empire on the soil. In accordance with that object, these charters were granted by the crown to titled pets, who were the seigneurs of the country; and the grantees transported from the unsettled population of the frontier towns of the mother country from time to time into the French colonies a large body of idle and somewhat thriftless men, who were ready to embark in any enterprise by which there was a prospect of bettering their fortunes.

The peculiar system of the French fur trade was aided as much by the character of the people as the spirit and policy of the French colonial government. The French colonists, who were scattered in their rude huts at widely separated points from the St. Lawrence to the banks of the Missouri, were calculated in a high degree to advance its enterprise. They consisted of three classes; the seigneurs, who were deemed the patricians of the country, and who held all its advantages by royal charters; the clergy, belonging to the Catholic church, who erected their crosses amid the most distant Indian camps, and were important agents of the French government in gaining the friendship of the savages, and in keeping a supervision around the French posts; and the large body of vagrant Frenchmen, who were fit subjects of the feudal system of the *Coutume de Paris*, or the French colonial law, which acted upon them down to the year 1760, the whole term of the French domination.

The system upon which the trade was conducted by the French, possessed certain peculiar and strongly-marked features. The French colo

nies, which first peopled the west, were mercantile colonies, and it was the policy of the men who held the soil, to strive to secure the greatest amount of temporary advantage from it, rather than to perpetuate the dominion of the mother country to the territory. Accordingly, all their plans were devoted to that object. Bodies of men were despatched, from time to time, from the head-quarters of the French colonial government, Quebec and Montreal, with implements of trade, to erect posts or factories upon the borders of the lakes, that might furnish places of deposit for the peltries collected, and serve as outposts for the protection of the extending jurisdiction of the French power. Within the first fifty years after their colonization, we find these factories extending from Quebec to the remotest shores of Lake Superior, at Detroit, Mackinaw, Duquesne, Chicago, Green Bay, St. Joseph, St. Marie, and St. Vincent. They consisted of clusters of rude houses, erected in the woods, thatched with bark or straw, in the midst of which settlement the jesuit missionary erected his chapel, that was surmounted by the cross. A rude fort, constructed from the means at hand, often contained a small garrison of French soldiers, and of persons connected with the fur trade. These settlements, however, were used mainly as factories of the trade, where the furs were themselves deposited, and which, at convenient times, were shipped to the Canadian ports.

The general course of the trade, as it operated through the lakes, was uniform, conducted as it was upon a settled and well-digested plan. The seigneurs, who, with the governor-general of Canada, were invested with the sovereign power, subject to the cognizance of the king of France, were oftentimes the partners of the company, and the mass of the traders were but little better than their serfs. It was, in consequence, the studied policy of these seigneurs to divert the enterprises of the great bulk of the traders from the pursuits of agriculture, and to direct them into the channels of the fur trade, from which the greatest amount of temporary profit could be reaped; and husbandry was encouraged only so far as it was required to furnish the means of subsistence.

The active agents of the French fur trade were the *Coueurs des Bois*, or rangers of the woods, a body of men eminently fitted for the station which they occupied. As a class, they were reckless and improvident; accustomed to the hardships of the forest, loving to roam the deepest wilderness, and to ply the paddle on the most solitary stream; as fond of the wild and wandering life of the woods as the mariner is of the ocean; and not unlike mariners in their character, for the wilderness, to them, was like the ocean, without inhabitants, save the wild beasts which they pursued, or the savage tribes that were roaming through it, or stationed in their wigwams, which were thinly scattered through its broad domain, and the scattered posts of the fur trade stood like lighthouses on its coast. Ever the dress of the *Coueurs des Bois* was demi-savage; consisting of leggins, moccasins, a capote or blanket coat, and a red sash twined around them as a girdle, in which was stuck a steel scalping-knife. It was made their duty to advance periodically through the great chain of the northwestern lakes, which furnished the most convenient channels of navigation to the interior posts, and thence through the forest streams to those points where the Indians were in the habit of resorting; and when they had collected their cargoes of furs and peltry, to return to Quebec and Montreal, sweeping down through the clear waters of the lakes, from which named ports they were shipped for France. The vehicles of the traffic were large

canoes of bark, sufficiently capacious to contain six men, and space for the storage of the manufactured goods, which were transported into the interior for barter, as well as the furs received in exchange. The articles used in the trade were generally imported from France, and were enclosed in packages of convenient size. They consisted of cotton-cloths, blankets, calicoes, guns, hatchets, and other kinds of hardware, cheap ornaments suited to the taste of the Indians, as well as all articles required by the wants of the savages. Thus provided, it was the custom of the fur traders to advance into the Indian territory, and either hunt and trap, themselves, or to exchange their goods with the Indians for the furs which were deposited in the hands of what were termed the "Farmers of the Beaver Skins," who were probably nothing more than modern factors, and by these they were shipped abroad.

The system of policy pursued in the French fur trade clearly exhibits the feudal spirit of that period. The old French companies who had been invested with broad charters from the French crown, constituting vast commercial monopolies, lording it over the forest, did not, however, accomplish the objects which were designed by the parent government. Holding the great bulk of the traders in an iron subjection, they grasped themselves all the advantages which were secured by the traffic, so that the traders were often willing to escape from the vassalage under which they labored, and to wander away from the French posts, to take up a permanent residence in the camps of savages, to secure to themselves Indian wives or concubines, and finally to incorporate themselves with the Indians.

In order to prevent the emigration of the traders from the posts, it was soon found necessary to exercise a more rigid power over their operations. Accordingly, it was ordained that no person should be permitted to trade with the Indians without licenses from the French king, and all persons who had not these licenses were prohibited from the going out of the colony under the penalty of death. The ordinary price of these licenses, according to La Hontan, was six hundred crowns, and they were purchased from the governor-general of Canada by the merchants, and by them sold out to the *Coueurs des Bois* or rangers, at an advance of about fifteen per cent more than they could command in ready money at the colony. The privileges granted in these licenses was the loading of two large canoes with cargoes of manufactured goods, valued at about a thousand crowns, each of which was manned by six men. On their voyages made through the lakes annually, the ordinary profit was one hundred per cent, from which the merchant took a thousand crowns for the prime cost of his exported goods, six hundred crowns for his license, and forty per cent for bottomry, so that there remained, from the two cargoes, only six hundred and eighty crowns, which were divided among the twelve *Coueurs des Bois*. During every year the traders would sweep down the lakes and streams from the remotest banks of Lake Superior, through the Ottawas river, or across the portage of Niagara Falls, with full freights, which were easily disposed of at the principal marts of the trade, Quebec and Montreal.

The character of Quebec and Montreal, produced by the annual arrival of the French ships with cargoes of European goods, destined for the fur trade, and ready to receive in return their freights of furs which were ready stored for shipment to France, was of a highly commercial cast. Society in these prominent posts was polished and elegant; sailing, fishing, hunting, driving their *carrioles* upon the ice of the St. Lawrence in winter, or

their *calashes* in summer over the rich soil, were their principal amusements. The annual arrival of the French ships was anticipated with eagerness, for they brought news from the mother country; and the French colonists watched their white sails as they faded away upon the landscape, bearing rich freights to a region which was their native land!

But the evil effects of the rigid policy that was pursued soon became manifest, and almost every one was permitted to embark in the fur trade, the system of granting licenses being abolished. The necessary consequence was, that the foreign markets became glutted, and a higher price was frequently paid for furs in our own country than they could command in France. A marked improvidence also pervaded its management. The French goods used in the trade were of much higher price than those of the English, so that the profits became so small that many of the French traders absconded to the English posts, and had permanent establishments in the state of New York.

Who has not heard of the Canadian boat songs which have so often awakened the solitude of the western waters, and made "Uttawa's tide" almost as famous as the classic streams of Italy and Greece? We here subjoin the two following original Canadian boat songs, which are now timed by the Canadians with their paddles upon the northwestern lakes. They were, probably, the model of those which Thomas Moore, the British poet, has given us:—

1.

Tous les printems,
Tant de nouvelle,
Tous les amants
Changent de maitresses;
Le bon vin m'endort,
L'amour me reveille.

Tous les amants
Changent de maitresses,
Qu'ils changent qui voudront,
Pour moi je garde la mienne;
Le bon vin m'endort,
L'amour me reveille.

2.

Dans mon chemin, j'ai rencontré
Trois cavaliers, bien montés;
L'on, lon, laridon daine,
Lon ton, laridon dai.

Trois cavaliers, bien montés,
L'un à cheval et l'autre à pied;
L'on, lon, laridon daine,
Lon ton, laridon dai.

The general course of the French fur trade cannot, perhaps, be more appropriately described than in the words of the Baron La Hontan, who was a resident of Montreal about the year 1685, and for some time the French commandant of a post upon the river St. Clair.

"Much about the same day," says La Hontan, "there arrived (at Montreal) twenty-five or thirty canoes belonging to the *Coueurs des Bois*, being homeward bound for the great lakes, and laden with beaver skins. The cargo of each canoe amounted to forty packs, and will fetch fifty crowns at the farmers' office. These canoes were followed by fifty more, of the Ottawas and Hurons, who came down every year to the colony, in order to make a better market than they can do in their own country of Michilimackinac, which lies on the banks of the Lake of Hurons (Lake Huron,) at the mouth of the Lake of the Illinese (Lake Michigan.) Their way of trading is as follows. Upon their arrival, they encamp at the distance of five or six hundred paces from the town. The next day is spent in ranging their canoes, unloading their goods, and pitching their tents, which are made of birch bark. The next day they demand an audience of the governor-general, which is granted them that same day in a public place. Upon this occasion each nation makes a ring for itself. The sav-

ages sit upon the ground, with their pipes in their mouths, and the governor is seated in an armchair; after which, there starts up an orator or speaker from one of these nations, who makes an harangue, importing that his brethren are come to visit the governor-general, and to renew with him their wonted friendship; that their chief view is to promote the interest of the French, some of whom being unacquainted with the way of traffic, and being too weak for the transporting of goods from the lakes, would be unable to deal in beaver skins, if his brethren did not come in person to deal with them in their own colonies; that they know very well how acceptable their arrival is to the inhabitants of Montreal, in regard of the advantage they reap by it; that in regard the beaver skins are much valued in France, and the French goods given in exchange are of an inconsiderable value, they mean to give the French sufficient proof of their readiness to furnish them with what they desire so earnestly. That by way of preparation for another year's cargo, they are come to take in exchange fuzees, powder and ball, in order to hunt great numbers of beavers, or to gall the Iroquese, in case they offer to disturb the French settlements. And in fine, that in confirmation of their words, they throw a porcelain collar with some beaver skins to the governor-general, whose protection they lay claim to, in case of any robbery or abuse committed upon them in the town. The spokesman, having made an end of his speech, returns to his place, and takes up his pipe, and the interpreter explains the substance of the harangue to the governor, who commonly gives a very civil answer, especially if the presents be valuable; in consideration of which he likewise makes them a present of some trifling things. This done, the savages rise up and return to their huts, to make suitable preparations for the ensuing truck.

"The next day the savages make their slaves carry the skins to the houses of the merchants, who bargain with them for such clothes as they want. All the inhabitants of Montreal are allowed to traffic with them, in any commodity but rum and brandy; these two being excepted, upon the account that when the savages have got what they wanted, and have any skins left, they drink to excess, and then kill their slaves, for when they are in drink, they quarrel and fight, and if they were not held by those who are sober, would certainly make havock one of another. However, you must observe that none of them will touch either gold or silver.

"As soon as the savages have made an end of their truck, they take leave of the governor, and so return home by the river Ottawas. To conclude, they did a great deal of good both to the poor and rich, for you will readily apprehend that everybody turns merchant upon such occasions."

It would seem that even at this period, a jealousy existed on the part of the French at the advance of the English, who, as early as 1686, had penetrated the forests as far as Michilimackinac in the prosecution of the fur trade. In 1720, we find Charlevoix striving to argue down the objection which had been urged to the increase of the settlement of Detroit, on account of its proximity to British influence. "As for what has been said," says Charlevoix, "that by making a settlement at the Narrows, we should bring the fur trade too much within reach (of the English,) there is not a man in Canada who does not agree that we can never succeed in preventing the Indians from carrying them their commodities, let them be settled where they will, and with all the precautions we can possibly take, except

by causing them to find the same advantage in trading with us as in the province of New York."

Such as we have attempted to sketch them, were the prominent features of the French fur trade, which exercised an undivided dominion over the forests bordering the western waters, until the year 1760, the date of the surrender of the country to England, and we pass to the operations of other European powers in this region relating to the same traffic.

While the French traders were ransacking the forests bordering the great lakes and the Mississippi, and storing with furs the warehouses of France, a gigantic corporation belonging to a rival power, and now in existence, had sprung up in the north—a power which is now grasping the entire dominion of the forest north of the American bounds from Hudson's Bay to the mouth of the Columbia, infringing upon our own territory, and exercising an iron despotism over the large body of French Canadians, traders, half-breeds, and Indians, who are in its employ and subject to its will. The English, for a long period, had made extraordinary efforts to discover a northern passage for ships between the Atlantic and Pacific; and about the commencement of the sixteenth century, Hudson and Baffin had explored the two bays whose names they bear. It was believed that the communication could only be effected by one of the last named bays, and in order to encourage the project of exploration, Charles II. granted to a society of London merchants, denominated *The Hudson's Bay Company*, a charter in 1669,* upon the implied condition that they would strive to effectuate that object. From this period, there sprang forward a monopoly not exceeded in magnitude by any that has existed on this continent, which, at first confining itself within the hyperborean regions of the north, and acting as a rival of the French for nearly a century, has gradually extended itself throughout the greater portion of the western territory, and without regard to chartered rights, appears to be destined to swallow up all other commercial enterprises within its reach. But we shall treat more particularly of its spirit and policy as we proceed.

Thus the fur trade continued to advance through the great chain of the lakes and the region of Hudson's Bay, pouring its furs through their channels to the places of shipment, singing its boat songs, and strangely mingling barbarism and civilization, until the power of France was swept from the soil to give place to that of England. From the time of the surrender of the western posts in 1760, down to the year 1766, the fur trade from Montreal was in a great measure suspended. The furs which were collected by the Indians from the borders of the lakes, were disposed of to the traders of Hudson's Bay, who now extended their posts towards the domain which had formerly been occupied by France. But in 1766, a few Scotch merchants from Upper Canada, finding the field unoccupied, soon established a post and factory at Michilimackinac, the central point of the old French fur trade; and from this point, their operations soon spread out beyond the borders of Lake Superior and the upper waters of the Mississippi, and north to Lake Winnipeg, and the Saskatchewan and Lake Athabasca. These traders, however, regarded as they were with jealousy, coming in collision with the traders of Hudson's Bay, were persecuted by that body, being hunted from post to post.

* In our former article on the "Progress of the Northwest," we stated the date of this charter to be 1668. It was granted the following year.

During the same year, an important journey was performed by Jonathan Carver, an adventurous explorer from Connecticut, who, in June of 1766, started from Boston, and passing through the straits of Mackinaw and the upper lakes, occupied the two succeeding years in investigating the country west of the Mississippi. It was his grand design to ascertain the character and the languages of the various Indian tribes which were scattered over its surface, as well as the productions of the soil beyond the Mississippi, and also to discover the breadth of the continent in its broadest part, from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, between the 43d and the 46th degree of northern latitude. His ultimate object also, was to propose to the government the establishment of a post in that region, near the "Strait of Anian," which he claimed would facilitate the discovery of a passage between Hudson's Bay and the Pacific. This object, however, he could not effect; as he was obliged to give up the project just as he had advanced to the St. Peter's river. The journal of his travels was however published in London, and was widely circulated, containing, as it did, interesting information relating to the topography of a country which had then been but partially explored, as well as facts relating to the Indian tribes that were found within its forests.

The abundance of furs and peltries which were found to exist in the northern part of our continent, soon gave rise to important foreign enterprises, and in 1784, preparations were made in several of the European nations for the prosecution of the fur trade within its borders, especially between the northwestern coast of America and China. At this period, the Russians procured the greater part of their furs from the northern parts of their empire, and transported them to China by land; while the markets of Great Britain were supplied by the factories of Canada and Hudson's Bay. China had been long a valuable mart for furs, from the fact that they were highly prized in that country, being required in the northern part of the empire, as a defence against the cold, while throughout its whole extent they were deemed a badge of rank and wealth, being used at Canton, which is under the tropics, during the winter.

In the succeeding year, James Hanna, an Englishman, sailed from Canton in April, for the prosecution of the fur trade, and during the August following he arrived in Nootka Sound with the first brig that had ever explored the northwest coast of America. Here he exchanged his coarse manufactures and old iron for a valuable cargo of furs, with which he returned to the port of Canton. About the same period, an association of merchants termed the "King George's Sound Company," was formed in London for the prosecution of the same trade on our western coast. The plan of this company was to collect furs on that part of our continent, and to transport them to Canton, receiving their return cargo in tea, which, by a special permission granted to them by the East India Company, they were allowed to ship to London. For that object two ships were despatched to the North Pacific. In the course of the two following years, two vessels were sent out from Calcutta and Bombay, by the East India Company; from Macao and Canton by the English and Portuguese; and from Ostena under the flag of the Austrian East India Company. The French also, in 1790, despatched expeditions to the northwest coast, for the purpose of obtaining information respecting the fur trade. Nor was the Spanish government far behind in the same enterprise. An agent was sent out by this nation to California for the purpose of collecting furs for the market of Can-

ton, which he did. But the few inferior furs which he had accumulated, hardly paid for the transportation, as the Canton market had been previously glutted. Meantime the Russians were gradually extending their knowledge of the northwestern coast, and the Americans soon put in their claims to the explorations of the same region. The *Columbia*, of two hundred and twenty tons, and the *Lady Washington*, of ninety tons, under the command of John Kendrick and Robert Gray, were fitted out by an association of merchants in Boston, and being furnished with sea letters from the general government, they sailed together on the 30th of September, 1787, for the prosecution of the fur trade on the same coast.

During the year 1787, the Northwest Company was organized. This company was established for the purpose of preventing the collisions which had before occurred between individual traders of the lakes and those of the Hudson's Bay Company, as well as to systematize the fur trade, and to balance the power of the last-named corporation. Its members were comprised of the principal merchants of Montreal, who had before been engaged in the fur trade around the lakes. This company did not secure a charter, but constituted themselves into a commercial partnership. It consisted of shares unequally divided among individual stockholders, some of whom were engaged in the importation of goods necessary to carry on the trade, in the supply of capital, and in the exportation of the proceeds; and others who were employed in actual trade at the interior posts and among the Indians. The shares of this company were gradually increased as new applicants for the stock appeared. The agents of the company went annually to Detroit, Mackinaw, St. Mary, and the grand portage, where they received their furs, and forwarded them to Montreal. The articles for the trade consisted of woollen and cotton goods, hardware, cutlery, and all those ornaments which were required by the Indians, as well as in the market of Montreal. These goods were annually shipped from London about the first of May, made up into the proper kinds of clothing, and in the winter they were bartered for furs and peltry, which during the next fall were shipped to London. The food which they used was of a coarse kind. The partners of the company, the interpreters, clerks, guides, and all in office, were allowed a more palatable provision; but the canoe-men, or voyagers, had nothing better than fat, and ground Indian corn boiled, which they called "hominee."

The two companies thus embarked as rivals in the fur trade, were actuated by the motives of rivals. The Hudson's Bay Company, which had exercised a supreme dominion over the frozen wilderness of the north, and had enthroned itself in solitary despotism at Rockfort, soon found a new company advancing upon their domain, and the rivalry of the two companies soon gave rise to violent outbreaks, though they confined themselves within different chartered limits. The Northwest Company stretched its arms over the northwestern lakes, aided by Canadians, half-breeds, voyagers, and Indians, as well as by Scotch agents, occupying the posts which had formerly belonged to the French along the line of the Great Lakes and the Mississippi; and in two years after its first establishment, it had advanced its posts as far as Athabasca Lake, eight hundred miles beyond Lake Superior.

Whether the operations of the Northwest Company were in the main profitable, is more than we can affirm, but the amount of furs and peltry which they collected was considerable. The following table, exhibiting the

number of skins which were collected by this company during one year, we derive from Sir Alexander Mackenzie, a partner in this association, who published an account of the fur trade, and who was a prominent agent in advancing its interests.

Product of the Northwest Company, for one year previous to 1794.

106,000 beaver skins,	600 wolverine skins,
2,100 bear skins,	1,650 fisher skins,
1,500 fox skins,	100 racoon skins,
4,000 kit fox skins,	3,800 wolf skins,
4,600 otter skins,	700 elk skins,
16,000 musksquash skins,	750 deer skins,
32,000 martin skins,	1,200 dressed deer skins,
1,800 mink skins,	500 buffalo robes.
6,000 lynx skins,	

Fort William, near the grand portage on the northwestern shore of Lake Superior, was the place of annual junction, where the partners from the interior met the leading directors from Montreal, to discuss the interests of the trade. The directors from Montreal would at this time ascend the rivers and lakes of the west in their large canoes, manned by Canadian voyagers, and provided with all the means of good cheer, not excepting the choicest wines. The place of assemblage was the grand council-house, a large wooden building, which was decorated with all the implements of baronial pomp, like a hall of the dark ages. The huge antlers of the elk, which almost rivalled in size the branches of the trees, the bow, and the painted war club, Indian ornaments of various kinds, richly sculptured pipes wrought from the red stone of that region, or cut from the horns of the deer, and ornamented with the plumes of birds, besides other trophies of Indian hunting and warfare, as well as domestic utensils and buffalo robes, carpeted the floor or adorned the walls of the hall. At this season a grand dinner was usually provided, with all the luxuries which the forest could furnish, or could be provided by the markets of Montreal. The partner of the company, the French voyager, clothed with tinsel, and with the red feather waving in his hat, the half-breed, the Highlander, and the Indian, were there strangely mingled. At such seasons also, the forests echoed the shouts of revelry, and the broad lakes were enlivened by the canoes of the Indians and traders, who were permitted to make this their grand holiday.

Meantime, the Russian government was extending its establishments along the western coasts of the continent. An association was formed among the merchants of Eastern Siberia as early as 1785, for the purpose of carrying on the fur trade upon the northern coast of the Pacific, which received protection from the Empress Catherine. Her son and successor, the Emperor Paul, was disposed, however, to subvert the association, on account of the cruelty of its agents towards the natives. But he soon changed his determination, and on the 8th of July, 1799, he granted to the association a charter under the name of the Russian American Fur Company, giving them an exclusive right to trade, for twenty years, along a large portion of the coast. This privilege was confirmed by his son and successor, the Emperor Alexander. The directors of this company had their residence at Tikutsk in Siberia, the grand depository of the China trade. This was afterwards changed to St. Petersburg, and was

placed under the general oversight of the imperial department of commerce. The Russian fur trade, although more despotic than that of the French and English, was nevertheless governed by the same general system of machinery; and here was laid the foundation of that immense Russian trade which was afterwards extended to the vast forests upon the northern shores of the Pacific. At this early period, numerous collisions sprang up between the Russian and American fur traders, founded upon mercantile rivalry; and, among other prominent charges made, it was complained that firearms were furnished to the natives by the Americans. From this fact it will be perceived that while the European fur companies were thus pushing their enterprises through the great arteries of western commerce, the United States had not been idle. During the year 1791, no less than seven vessels from this country arrived in the North Pacific, in search of furs; and Captain Ingraham, having sailed from Boston in 1790, had discovered the group of islands which is situated near the centre of the Pacific, and called the Washington Islands.

Although Mackenzie had crossed the continent to the Pacific, in 1793, still the vast domain remained unpeopled, and from the year 1796 to 1814 the whole of the trade carried on between the coast of the Pacific and China was performed in American vessels. Yet the Americans had no establishment upon the western borders of the continent. The American vessels were accustomed to sail from the United States or from Europe, to the North Pacific, with cargoes of spirits, wine, sugar, tobacco, firearms, gunpowder, iron, and coarse manufactures of various kinds, which were exchanged with the natives or Russians, for furs upon the coast, or sometimes these cargoes were obtained by hiring from the Russian agent hunters and fishermen, who would procure for their employers the cargoes which were desired. These cargoes were then shipped to Canton, and bartered for teas, porcelain, nankeens, and silks, which were themselves shipped to the markets of Europe or the United States; or if the ships were not able to collect a sufficient cargo of furs, they were accustomed to take in freights of sandal-wood, pearl-shells, and tortoise-shells, which might be easily procured at the Sandwich Islands, and which commanded a high price in the markets of Canton.

In consequence of the signal success which had attended the operations of the Northwest Company, a new company was formed for the prosecution of the fur trade, called the Mackinaw Company, from the fact that its principal depot was on the island of Mackinaw; and while the companies of the Northwest and Hudson's Bay adventured deeper into the forest, in the regions of the north and the head waters of the Missouri, the Mackinaw Company pushed its canoes through the streams of Iowa and Wisconsin.

It is well known that after the treaty of 1783, establishing the boundaries of the United States, the English refused to deliver up the western posts, and it was their studied policy to excite the vengeance of the confederated Indian tribes in that region against the United States. By a clause in Jay's treaty, concluded in 1794, British traders were permitted to enter the American territory, to carry on the fur trade. But a new aspect was soon given to affairs by the purchase of Louisiana, under treaty bearing date April 30th, 1803, which not only gave to us the domain included within its territorial boundaries, but also the right of navigating the Mississippi, from the source to the sea. At this period, Mr. Jefferson, then in the presidential chair, projected an expedition, to be undertaken by the

federal government, for a particular exploration of the country watered by the Missouri, and westward to the Pacific, and commenced a series of efforts which ended in the expedition of Lewis and Clarke. These adventurous men proceeded up the Missouri towards the Rocky Mountains, partly by land and partly by water, exploring the main stream to its source. Here they prepared to cross the Rocky Mountains, in August of 1805, and having accomplished their object, they reached the mouth of the Columbia on the 7th of November of the same year.

In consequence of this expedition of Lewis and Clarke, projects were soon commenced also by the English, for the extension of their fur trade west of the Rocky Mountains; and during the spring of 1806, Mr. Silas Frazer, a partner of the Northwest Company, established a British trading post on Frazer's Lake, near the fifty-fourth parallel, at a point since called New Caledonia.

While these foreign enterprises were advancing, the Americans were not idle. At St. Louis an association was formed in 1808, called the Missouri Company, which was projected by Manuel Lisa, an enterprising Spaniard. Two years afterwards, a number of trading posts were established upon the Upper Missouri, and one beyond the Rocky Mountains, on the Lewis river, by Mr. Henry, and also on the southern branch of the Columbia. But the enmity of the savages within its range, and the difficulty of obtaining regular supplies of food, obliged Mr. Henry to abandon it in 1810.

The operations of the Northwest Company in confederating the numerous savage tribes at the west, especially in the forests around the Mississippi and the great lakes, induced the American government to send out individual traders, to supply the wants of the Indians, and, if possible, to link their feelings with the United States. These efforts produced, however, but little effect; and the profits of the fur trade induced a project of great magnitude, as evincing the enterprise of its founder.

Meanwhile, the Russians were extending their establishments upon the North Pacific coasts, as far as Guadalupe, or Norfolk Sound, and, as early as 1806, they had made preparations to occupy the mouth of the Columbia river. The Russian fur trade was conducted on a despotic plan. The territory occupied by the Russian Fur Company was divided into districts, and each district was placed under an overseer, aided by a small number of Russians, who kept the natives in entire subjection to his will, and compelled them to labor for him. The overseers were under the general direction of an agent, one of whom resided in each group of settlements, and all were subject to the will of a chief director, or governor-general, who exercised over them an absolute power, although subject to certain written regulations which were drawn up at St. Petersburg. The great body of the laborers in the Russian fur trade were employed principally as mechanics, hunters, fishermen, or soldiers, and were constituted of a class of vagabond Russians, pressed down by the most abject servitude, and in such a state of want that, to them, the grave would almost have been a relief. The furs collected were shipped to Petro-Pawlowsk and Ocholsk, from which points the goods required for the trade were transported, the remainder being supplied from American vessels. The Russian government soon, however, made important efforts to exclude these American vessels from the Pacific, in order not only that they might monopolize the fur trade, but also prevent the Americans from furnishing the Indians arms and am-

ammunition, which they had long done, to the great detriment of its interests.

As early as 1800, the stock of the Russian Fur Company rapidly advanced, under the auspices of Alexander Baranoff, a bold, shrewd, energetic, and heartless man, who, in measuring the interests of the trade, regarded its profits as of greater value than right and humanity, the souls and the bodies of men; not remembering that before the bar of justice gold is but dross; that no liquid, even of molten diamonds, could there wash out his crimes, and that those whom he had injured would stand up against him as his accusers!

Mr. John Jacob Astor, a German by birth, who had emigrated from that country in 1783, and, by engaging in the fur trade here, had laid the foundation of a splendid fortune, knowing that it was the wish of the government of the United States to divert the trade from the British to American hands, undertook to accomplish this object with his own single arm. With that view, he obtained, in 1809, a charter from the legislature of New York, organizing the Pacific Fur Company, all the stock belonging to himself, he being also the director of its operations. His design was to establish posts on the coast of the Pacific, the Columbia and its branches, as well as upon the head waters of the Missouri. These posts were to be supplied with the necessary articles of trade, either by the way of the Missouri, or from the principal factory at the mouth of the Columbia, which last-named post was to be fed by ships annually sent out from the port of New York. This principal depot at the mouth of the Columbia was to receive all the furs and peltries collected at the other posts, and the ships sent out from the last, after discharging their cargoes at this depot, were to be reladen with furs, which were to be carried to Canton, and receive in return teas, silks, and other Chinese productions, which were to be reshipped to New York. In order to prevent difficulty, it was proposed to furnish from the American ships to the Russians in that region, whatever of goods they might require, for which furs were to be received in exchange, and for that object a special agent was sent to St. Petersburg, who succeeded in effecting the negotiation. As Mr. Astor, by the scope of his mind, and the weight of his character, had raised himself to high consideration with the government, he received strong assurances of countenance from the cabinet of Mr. Jefferson, and promises to support the enterprise in any proper way.

For the prosecution of this grand enterprise two expeditions were projected, one by sea and one by land. The former was directed to proceed by sea from New York to the mouth of the Columbia, with the proper stores and ammunition for the establishment of a fortified post at the mouth of the Columbia; and the other to advance by land, up the Missouri, and across the Rocky Mountains to the same point, marking on their way the proper places for the establishment of the interior posts.

For the execution of his plan Mr. Astor engaged, as partners, a number of Scotchmen who had been employed in the Northwest Company, together with Americans and Canadians, acquainted with the fur trade. The partners were empowered to conduct the operations of the trade in the west, receiving for their services one half of the profits, while Mr. Astor, who was to remain in New York and superintend its operations, himself furnishing the capital, was to retain the other half. In 1809, the ship *Enterprise* had been despatched to the North Pacific, to make inquiries from the Russian settlements, and to clear the way for its future action.

In September, 1810, the ship *Tonquin* left the harbor of New York, laden with the means for the establishment of the post at the mouth of the Columbia, and arrived at that point in March of 1811. A site was selected on the Columbia, about eight miles from the ocean, and named *Astoria*, from the founder of the expedition, which point was designed as the basis of the principal factory. The goods of the *Tonquin* being landed, she sailed to the North Pacific in search of furs. During the following summer the necessary buildings were erected, a garden was commenced, a small vessel was launched, trade was begun with the natives, and every thing went on with signal success.

In the July following, a detachment from the Northwest Company arrived at Astoria, under the direction of Mr. Thompson, who left Montreal during the preceding year for the purpose of taking possession of the mouth of the Columbia. On their way to that point they erected huts and raised flags, under the conviction that it was the territory of their sovereign. But they arrived at Astoria too late, as the most important point had been already occupied by the settlement of Astoria. The expedition was, however, treated with marked attention by McDougall, Mackay, and Stuart, the agents of the Pacific Fur Company. By this party, the first British trading posts were established on the Columbia, but the expedition from Montreal soon found it desirable to return.

Meanwhile, the land party under Mr. Hunt, having ascended the Missouri, and crossed the Rocky Mountains, arrived at Astoria in the spring of 1812, after they had suffered extraordinary hardships on their way down. But they had scarcely reached Astoria when news arrived of the destruction of the *Tonquin* and her whole crew, with the exception of the Indian interpreter. It appears that near Nootka Sound the crew were overpowered by the savages, with the exception of the clerk and a few others who took refuge in the hold, and by whom the ship was blown up. This transaction tended to cast a gloom over the settlement, which, however, was temporarily lighted up in May of 1812, by the arrival of the *Beaver*, with supplies from New York. At this time it was believed that the auspices of the settlement might be improved by the extension of their knowledge to the Russian possessions upon the coast; and for that purpose Mr. Hunt embarked in the *Beaver* during the month of August, leaving Mr. Duncan McDougall, one of the Scotch partners, in charge of the establishment at Astoria.

In January, 1813, information of the declaration of war by the United States against Great Britain reached the settlement of Astoria, and in the June following, Mr. McTavish, a partner of the Northwest Company, arrived, bringing news that a British naval force was approaching, to take possession of the mouth of the Columbia. This news seems to have been received by McDougall and Ross Cox with satisfaction, and they immediately quitted the service of the American company, and entered into that of the rival association; while the traders unanimously agreed that if succor did not soon arrive, they would relinquish the post. But no succor came. And about the same time, a body of men in the service of the Northwest Company brought information that a large armed ship, called the *Isaac Todd*, had been fitted out at London by the Northwest Company, and was approaching the Columbia under the convoy of a frigate, with directions to destroy every thing in this region which was American. At this juncture McTavish and Stewart, who led the last-named detachment,

proposed to purchase the whole of the stock of the Pacific company in the territory of the Columbia, and to engage in the service of the Northwest Company all the traders employed by the Americans, which proposition was acceded to, and a transfer of this property was made to the Northwest Company for forty thousand dollars, paid in bills on Montreal. While this transfer was in progress, a British ship of war, under Captain Black, hove in sight, anticipating a rich prize from the capture of Astoria, which was still surmounted by the American flag. The place was surrendered by McDougall, who was the chief agent; but the property which was to reward the enterprise of the British commander, had been transferred by bill of sale, and was proceeding safely up the river in the barges of the Northwest Company. The American flag was torn down, and that of England erected in its place, the name of the post being changed to Fort George. On the 28th of February, 1814, Mr. Hunt arrived at the Columbia in the brig *Pedlar*, which had been chartered for the purpose of transporting the property of the American company to Canton, but he found the post in possession of McDougall, not acting as agent of *Astoria*, but as a partner of the Northwest Company, having the chief direction of *Fort George*, changed to a British post. All, therefore, that remained for him was, to receive the bills given for the effects of Astoria and its establishments, and to sail to the United States by way of Canton. A portion of the individuals who had been employed in the Pacific Fur Company were engaged in the Northwest Company, and a part returned to the United States. Thus an establishment which, had it been successful, would have stamped the name of its founder as a national benefactor, by its furnishing a frontier military post to the United States, was undermined.

By the treaty of Ghent, made between Great Britain and this country, it was provided that all posts taken during the war should be restored, and in accordance with this clause, the Americans, in 1814, demanded the restitution of Astoria as one of these posts, which was denied. On the 4th of October, 1817, the sloop of war *Ontario*, under the command of Captain Biddle, sailed from New York for the Pacific, in order to take possession of the post, which was finally yielded up without bloodshed to the commissioner, Mr. Prevost, in October, 1818. During the following year, the charter of the Russian Fur Company, which had been granted by the Emperor Paul, was renewed for twenty years by the Emperor Alexander; and on the 4th of September, 1821, an imperial *ukase* or edict was passed, in which pretensions were advanced claiming an immense line of coast on the western boundary of America by discovery and possession, which claim, however, it was found difficult to establish.

But the mercantile rivalry of the two great British corporations, the Northwest and the Hudson's Bay Company, which had been long strengthening, now began to rage in the wilderness, and in 1814, had broken out into actual war. A colony of Scotch highlanders had been established upon the Red river by Lord Selkirk, in virtue of a grant of the country from the Hudson's Bay Company. On the other hand, the Northwest Company denied the validity of that grant, and it was of great injury to the last-named body, as their posts had been almost entirely supplied from the Red river lands. In consequence, numerous acts of violence ensued, and in 1814, the Scotchmen were driven away, their houses demolished, and the colony subverted. It was re-established, however, during the following year, when the hostilities were renewed, the posts retaken and burned. On the 19th

of June, 1816, a more formidable battle was fought between the rival traders; the Scotchmen were routed, and their governor, Mr. Temple, and five others, were killed. These facts having been brought before the British parliament, an act was passed on the 2d of July, 1821, uniting the two companies by the name of "*The Hudson's Bay Company*," under a charter granting to them the privilege of trading in the Indian territory claimed or belonging to Great Britain for the period of twenty-one years.

We do not design here to go into a particular examination of the different expeditions of Ashley, Bonneville, and Wyeth, and the later journal of Mr. Parker. In 1826, Messrs. Smith, Jackson, and Sublette, of St. Louis, formed a company called the Rocky Mountain Fur Company, they having purchased the establishment and interests belonging to General Ashley, of Missouri, who had previously pushed an expedition beyond the mountains, aided by sixty men and a cannon drawn by mules. In 1832, Captain Bonneville, of the American army, led a band of more than a hundred men, with mules and packhorses, transporting his goods from Missouri, and collecting his furs chiefly in the country drained by the Lewis river and its branches. About the same time, Mr. Nathaniel Wyeth projected an enterprise for the prosecution of the trade between the ports of the United States and the Columbia; and although he was obliged to relinquish his expedition on account of the indirect opposition of the Hudson's Bay Company, his explorations were of great service to the United States, by furnishing important information respecting the country. The recent journal of Parker also contains very valuable information respecting the region of the Oregon. Having taken a rapid glance of the progress of the fur trade of the west, we now come to a consideration of its present condition.

That vast unpeopled region west of the lakes and extending to the shores of the Pacific, is now ranged chiefly by the agents of the Hudson's Bay Company, the North American Fur Company, founded also by Mr. Astor, and the few traders who from time to time have adventured into the forest on their own account.

The system of the Hudson's Bay Company is one calculated to further the exercise of its despotic power. Its affairs are managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and a committee of directors, who are established in the city of London, and by whom all its operations are devised, and to whom the reports of its affairs are transmitted. The trade of this company at the west is prosecuted by a resident governor, agents, factors, and clerks, some of whom have a share in the profits of the trade; and also by a more active class of agents, the hunters, voyagers, and trappers, consisting of French Canadians, half-breeds, and Indians, who are paid a small salary with promises of future advancement according as they shall render themselves of value to the trade. They are allowed only a small share of miserable food, and are kept by promises in a state of entire subjection to the will of the company. The furs which are collected are procured mainly from the Indians, in exchange for manufactured goods, which are imported into the country free of duty, although the servants of the company are engaged themselves at particular seasons in hunting and trapping. The territory ranged by this company is divided into districts, each of which is under the charge of an agent, who receives the goods imported from England, and distributes them to the traders, receiving in return the furs which are collected by them. These furs are sent to three grand depositories of trade—Montreal, in Canada, York Factory, on Hudson's Bay, and Fort

Vancouver, upon the Columbia river. Each of these posts is the nucleus of a certain number of other inferior posts. The goods from Montreal generally pass through Fort William, upon the northwest shore of Lake Superior. Several vessels, and also a steamboat, are employed by this company upon the northwest coast, all of which are engaged in furthering its operations in that quarter. Goods for the trade are imported to Fort Vancouver directly from London, and the furs collected at that post are annually shipped to the British metropolis.

It is evident that in order to support the machinery of so gigantic an establishment as that of the Hudson's Bay Company, the profits of the trade must be immense, as is proved by its annual returns. The value of furs collected in 1828, is shown by these returns to have been \$894,879 35. The shares of the corporation have increased from 40 per cent below par to 140 per cent above par, and the business of the association has advanced to the yearly sum of \$100,000. The annual amount of the value of the peltries exported from America by the Hudson's Bay Company between 1827 and 1833, according to Mr. McGregor, was one million of dollars; while Mr. Wyeth estimates the amount of furs derived from the territories west of the Rocky Mountains, by the company, at one hundred and thirty-eight thousand dollars, which are received for about twenty thousand dollars worth of goods at the prime cost, the services of three hundred and fifty men, and two years' interest on the investment. The shares of the company, as we have seen, are worth more than twice their original value; and the latest annual dividend on each share at one hundred pounds each, is stated to be ten pounds. The following table of the exports of furs and peltries for 1831, from the territory occupied by this company, we derive from McCulloch's Dictionary of Commerce, which is extracted from the work of Mr. Bliss. This table of course excludes the exports of the Hudson's Bay Company, of isinglass, sea-horse teeth, feathers, goose and swan quills, oil and whalebone, which are the products of its industry.

Exports in 1831.

Skins.			Total value.
Beaver,	126,944, each	1 <i>l.</i> 5 <i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i>	158,680 <i>l.</i> 0 <i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i>
Muskrat,	375,731, "	0 0 6	9,393 5 6
Lynx,	58,010, "	0 8 0	23,204 0 0
Wolf,	5,947, "	0 8 0	2,378 16 0
Bear,	3,850, "	1 0 0	3,850 0 0
Fox,	8,765, "	0 10 0	4,382 10 0
Mink,	9,298, "	0 2 0	929 16 0
Racoon,	325, "	0 1 6	24 7 6
Tails,	2,290, "	0 1 0	114 10 0
Wolverine,	1,744, "	0 3 0	261 12 0
Deer,	645, "	0 3 0	96 15 0
Weasel,	34, "	0 0 6	0 17 0

£203,316 9 0

On the contrary, the North American Fur Company have but few posts on the west side of the Rocky Mountains, and these are but feeble. Its agents procure all their furs themselves, trading but little with the Indians, who are opposed to them, being instigated by the policy of the Hudson's Bay Company. Three or four hundred hunters and trappers remain in that

country, who repair during every summer to the places of rendezvous, carrying their furs on their backs, or on packhorses, where they meet the caravans from the United States. Wherever the Hudson's Bay Company plants its iron footsteps, there the American trade is sure to decline. The principal places of rendezvous for the American traders are on Green river, a branch of the Colorado, at the foot of the Rocky Mountains, and at Pierres Hole. A portion of the American fur traders are also stationed around the great lakes, at the posts formerly occupied by the old French and English companies; and a large quantity of fish is annually taken in the waters of Lake Superior, which are shipped, together with the furs collected, to New York. The precise amount of furs collected annually by the American Fur Company, we are not able to state; but it is doubtless great, notwithstanding all the disadvantages under which they labor from the sometimes open, but more generally covert opposition of the great rival association.

The success of the Rocky Mountain Fur Company, which had advanced into the west, soon excited the emulation of the American Fur Company; Mr. Astor, its founder, having retired from busy life in consequence of his age, and leaving the concerns of the company under the direction of Mr. Ramsay Crooks. A keen competition soon sprang up between the two companies for trade with the mountain tribes, upon the head waters of the Columbia and the other tributaries of the Pacific.

The character of the men engaged as hunters and trappers in the fur trade throughout the extreme northwest, is peculiar and original. The trade is not carried on now, as in former times, by batteaux and canoes, which under the old French and English system enlivened the rivers and lakes of our old northwestern territory. The fur-bearing animals have been driven from a great portion of their borders by the advance of emigration, and their shores have become to a great extent the sites of substantial farmhouses and prosperous settlements. The canoe has given place to the steam-ship; the trading post to the city. The great bulk of the trade has been transferred to the region of the mountains, whose wild recesses contain no lake where they can disport their canoes, no streams which float their furs to a market. These traders transport their goods or furs upon packhorses, or carry them on their own backs. They move from place to place on horseback, sometimes conveying their traps upon their shoulders through deep ravines, up steep precipices inaccessible to the horse, in search of points which contain their favorite game. The life of the trader becomes a scene of toil and deprivation, and yet of passionate excitement. His views are exaggerated, his habits unsettled, his sentiments noble and generous, like those of the sailor, for the causes which act upon him are similar in their character. Such is the character of the active agents of the fur trade, the sturdy hunters and trappers of the west.*

The Hudson's Bay Company appears always to have opposed the colonization of the territory stretching along the Pacific. On the river Wallamet a few old Canadian voyagers are permitted to reside, with their Indian wives

* We would here state that for the facts connected with the early French fur trade, we are indebted to La Hontan, Charlevoix, and other French colonial writers; and for its later history, to Henry, Carver, Mackenzie, Irving, and a "Memoir, Historical and Political, on the Northwest Coast of America," transmitted to Congress in February last by Robert Greenhow, translator and librarian to the Department of State.

and half-breed families ; but these are in strict subjection to the company, and all those who do not connect themselves with its interest are deemed intruders. Indeed the territory is one which will probably never be valuable as an agricultural country, or furnish motives for extensive colonization. It is in many parts wild, rocky, and terrific, abounding with deep dells and rugged mountain chains. Some portions may be made a good pastoral country, but the greater part is entirely deficient in agricultural resources. The soil is light. It produces neither the common grains in abundance, and abounds in no rich metals, gems, and gold. Its great importance at present seems to be derived from the extent of the fur trade within its borders, and the advantages which are possessed by its coast for navigation. The only settlement of any importance along the coast at all, is that of Fort Vancouver, belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company, which is situated on the Columbia, about one hundred miles from its mouth. It is comprised in a group of buildings enclosed by a picket, which includes a space of about four hundred and fifty feet. Here there are thirty-four tenements, and also workshops for mechanics, and a fort. Near the fort are cabins for laborers, and the connecting buildings, a sawmill, magazine, hospital, and a large boat-house near the shore. At this point is also a farm containing three thousand acres of land, and cultivated by Canadians and half-breed Iroquois. Four vessels ply from the coast, bringing cargoes of supplies, and returning with furs to London. A steamboat called the *Beaver*, of one hundred and fifty tons, and with two engines of thirty horse power, which were built in London, is now employed in navigating the straits from Juan de Fuca to Stickern.

The prosperous condition of the Hudson's Bay Company may be in some measure attributed to the fact that the goods for the English trade may be imported into their colonies without duty, and yet forty per cent, and even more, is required from the American merchant, who is obliged to pay a duty on furs imported into the British market, while English furs may be imported into our own market free of duty. But the fur trade appears fated to decline upon the eastern as well as the western portion of the Rocky Mountains, by the diminution of the animals from which it seeks its profits. This diminution, however, has been obviated in some measure by the Hudson's Bay Company, who have preserved those particular tracts undisturbed. But where these precautions are not used, the American and British traders advance into the territory, and strip it of its wealth, so that in a short time there will be but little left upon the soil for commercial enterprise. Moreover, by the prohibitory measures of the Russians and the Hudson's Bay Company, American vessels are excluded from the Pacific, and all the furs and peltry which now reach China by water, are shipped from New York or from London. It is indeed obvious, when we consider the price of furs with us, that a valuable market both for the products of our American fur trade, (which now ranges west of Lake Superior and the Missouri, towards the Rocky Mountains,) as well as that of the British, is derived from the United States, as well as from China and London, for the bulk of the furs and peltry, and especially buffalo robes, which are now used in this country, is furnished by our western fur trade, although, as colonization has advanced, its principal depot has been changed from Detroit to St. Louis.

We have thus given to our readers a rapid sketch of the progress of the fur trade within our continent from the first colonization of the country ;

and although it is a mere outline, it may tend to convey a faint idea of its vast magnitude and importance. Its operations are now extended to a portion of the empire, of little immediate value to us, but advancing in proportion to the increase of our population. It appears to be of great national utility that we should husband whatever of resources are contained within our national domain, before they are divested of a source of great wealth, by a horde of lawless trappers in the employ of a British corporation, scouring our mountain chains upon their fleet horses, out of the pale of the law, and distant from the restraints of civilization, regardless of God or man. With the advancing population of the country, and its growing enterprise, we may anticipate that the streams along the Pacific coast and the harbors of its shores, will be partially colonized, and that even the waves of the western ocean may be ploughed by a productive commerce, as they are already studded with the canvass of our whaling ships. If any portion of that territory is ours by the right of discovery, conquest, occupation, or treaty, it should be possessed as our own. Its territory should be respected, and any aggressions upon its domain should be treated with that punishment which belongs to all violators of treaties. We doubt not that many difficulties are in the way. The country is filled with savage tribes, hostile to the United States, from whom nothing is to be hoped, and every thing is to be feared. The gigantic power of the Hudson's Bay Company is holding all the influences of that quarter within its iron grasp. But could not a portion of the influence and the wealth which are now devoted to party strife, be applied with advantage to the establishment of our national rights in that region? If our empire possesses any northwestern boundary, ought not this boundary to be adjusted? Ought not the stars and stripes of our country to float over it, backed by a sufficient military power, to preserve its wealth, and to protect it from unjust invasion?

ART. II.—GOVERNMENTAL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

FROM THE EARLIEST SETTLEMENTS TO THE ADOPTION OF THE CONSTITUTION.

PART FIRST.

HE who scans with a reflecting and philosophic mind the history of the world, will often have had occasion to mark by what a singularly slight instrumentality great revolutions have been originated and accomplished. Incidents, seemingly the most trivial and unimportant, have a momentous influence on our characters and condition. They affect the projects and purposes of individuals, and through them, in their nearer or more remote sequences, the destinies of nations and of mankind. This feature in the economy which regulates the allotments of the human race is strikingly illustrated in the history of our own country. We have to roll back but a few centuries the current of time. We pass over the history of empires, the change of dynasties, and the fall of kingdoms, and pause to contemplate the career of a single, and, comparatively, an obscure individual. Beholding, as we do, the mighty and unending consequences of his labors and his genius, we

watch with no ordinary interest his early life. We behold in him a restless-ness of spirit which even the fond endearments of home, of kindred, and of country, cannot check. A purpose which we cannot yet comprehend, seems to have taken possession of his soul, and his whole ardor is bent to its accomplishment. Educated in all the various lore of science deemed useful in his age, he turns all to the one grand purpose that has fired his energies. After completing his education on land, we see him entering on board a vessel bound for discovery. Voyage after voyage is taken. Observation is made upon observation. He boldly adventures into unknown seas, until his patrimony is exhausted in enlarging his knowledge and completing his education. Not yet satisfied with the extent of his acquirements, he enters into the employ of a then famous sea captain. Here again we behold him with a new and peculiar interest. Far off the coast of Portugal, we see him engaged with a piratical squadron. His vessel is set fire to; and now we anxiously inquire, where is the future discoverer of America? What will be the probable fate of nations, what the destinies of mankind, if he perishes? He casts himself into the sea, and after a long and dangerous struggling, reaches the shore in safety. If he had been of the Roman school, he might here, perchance, have read an omen that the elements should never thwart his darling purposes.

Thus, by the number and variety of his voyages, made to almost all parts of the world, and by availing himself of the observations and discoveries of other adventurers, Christopher Columbus became one of the most skilful and scientific navigators of his age. He had early imbibed the idea that a new continent existed in the western hemisphere, and this impression grew almost into absolute conviction from the investigations made in the course of his voyages and studies.

After having revolved his theories with much care and deliberation, he disclosed them to the government of Genoa, and at the same time made application for patronage and assistance in his schemes; making the first proffer of his labors and his enterprise to his native country. His proposals were rejected as wild and chimerical. Not at all daunted by this ruthless repulse, he immediately applied to John II. of Portugal. In a country already fired with the spirit of discovery, where he had long resided, in whose service he had been employed, and where he was well known for skill and integrity, he had every reason to expect a favorable listening to his plans. He was, indeed, favorably regarded by the king, and directed to his counsellors. By them he was received and heard with jealousy and suspicion. They obtained from him a statement of his views, put him off with an evasive answer, and then basely plotted to deprive him of his honors by advising the king to fit out secretly an expedition. Their designs were frustrated, however, by the unskilfulness, the ignorance, and the cowardice, of those to whom the expedition was committed.

Thus again, and so treacherously baffled in his efforts, he indignantly repaired to the crown of Spain. Here too, after a countless variety of vexations and discouragements, contending with ignorance, with prejudice, and philosophic bigotry, he was disappointed. Still he remained confident in his views, was still resolute and persevering in his purposes. He applied to wealthy individuals, and at length, through his brother Bartholomew, to the crown of England; and yet to no purpose.

At last, through the intervention of some friends, he gained an audience with Isabella of Castile and Arragon, who became deeply interested in his

schemes, and under her kindly auspices, he made preparations for his voyage, and set sail on Friday, the 3d of August, 1492.

It is not necessary, with our present purpose, to enter into the details of his adventures, or their results, or of his future embarrassments, dangers, and sufferings, nor to speak of the ingratitude which clouded his latter days; we leave all these for the more able pen of his biographer. His theories respecting the structure of the globe seemed demonstrated by his discoveries, and the eyes of all Europe were directed towards them. A spirit of adventure and discovery was stirred up among rival powers. Each became anxious to extend its dominion and enrich its treasury, and each fitted out its expeditions.

England, ever ambitious and grasping, entered with alacrity and ardor upon these expeditions for discovery. The application of Columbus to Henry VII. though it gained him no patronage, was not without its effect upon the nation. It awakened the attention of scientific men, and inspired a spirit of research and inquiry. The return of Columbus, and the accounts given of his adventures, roused the whole kingdom to the subject. Her skill in navigation, however, was not such as to allow England to carry her purposes into execution. The genius and the energy of the nation had been long consuming itself in fruitless endeavors to subjugate France; and after this unhallowed fire of her ambition had abated, she found herself the victim of internal commotions. For the space of two centuries, while commerce and the mechanic arts were making gradual and sure progress in the north and south of Europe, England remained almost insensible to the advantages of her own position, and looked with indifference on the projects and arts which have since become her boast, her pride, and her power. While all other of the nations of Europe were active and enterprising in trade and navigation, she was inactive, unaltered, and unimproved. Her own ships and seamen had not ventured out of sight of her coasts, and were hardly acquainted with the distant ports of Europe.

Such being her condition, it became necessary, in order to enter upon the enterprise of exploration, to look to foreign countries for seamen and navigators; and Henry accordingly invested Giovanni Gabott, or Cabott, a Venetian adventurer, then at Bristol, with the chief command of such an expedition, giving to him and three of his sons, power to sail under the English flag, in any direction, to discover countries as yet unknown, or unsettled by any Christian nation, and to take possession of them in his name. This commission bore date March 5th, 1495, a little less than two years after the return of Columbus. Cabot, however, did not set sail on this enterprise till about two years from this period. He embarked with his son Sebastian, at Bristol, on board a ship furnished by the crown, accompanied with a squadron of smaller vessels, prepared and furnished by a company of merchants of that city, on the 4th May, 1497.

It was also a favorite theory of Columbus, that a new and more expedient route to the East Indies might be accomplished by sailing directly westward, and he gave considerable plausibility to his opinions in the accounts he gave of the islands he had discovered, regarding these but as an extension of that "long chain of India." This became the prevalent opinion with all navigators. Cabot accordingly kept his course due west. After sailing to that point for several weeks, he discovered a large island, now known as Newfoundland. A few days afterwards, he discovered the

island of St. John's. He landed at each of these, made some observations as to the nature of the soil and climate, took possession in the name of the crown of England, and embarked, taking with him three of the natives. Holding his course still to the west, he reached the coast of North America, and sailed along it from 56° to 36° north latitude, from the coast of Labrador to Virginia. Discovering no inlet which seemed to promise a communication with the southern ocean, he did not land, but returned again to England (June 24th) without having made any advances towards a conquest or settlement of the country.

If the right of discovery had at that time been regarded as conferring an absolute title to the new country, Henry might have taken advantage of the results of this expedition, to annex the entire territory of North America to the dominions of the crown of England. But the nation was then, unfortunately, embroiled in a war with a neighboring island, and had hardly recovered from the internal commotions which had recently convulsed her western provinces. Henry, too, at this time, was too solicitous of retaining the friendship of Ferdinand of Arragon, and was negotiating an alliance between his eldest son and Catherine, the daughter of that monarch. He therefore, courteously rather than wisely, judged that the islands and territory Cabot had discovered, were within the limits of the very liberal grant made to Ferdinand and Isabella by Pope Alexander VI. Nor had even kings in that day the hardihood or impiety to question the validity of a donative from the see of Rome. These considerations induced Henry to abandon the idea of another expedition to the new continent.

It was not till after the lapse of sixty years from this period, that the attention of the crown was again actively directed towards its discoveries in America. Various and frequently-recurring circumstances had combined to withdraw attention from a subject destined so soon thereafter to become one of deep and thrilling interest to all the world. But it was reserved for the active, spirited, and efficient reign of Elizabeth, to accomplish what her predecessors had, through indolence, papal fear, or want of genius, left so shamefully undone. The kingdom was tranquil during nearly the whole period of her propitious reign. Commerce was cultivated, extended, and flourished. Navigation was studied as a science, improved and reduced to more extensive practice as an art. The labor of her mechanics and artificers was increased, and their skill consequently improved. A navy was built up. Seamen were nourished, and adventurers multiplied. Our present purpose will not permit us to enter into the wide field of discovery and adventure into which she sent forth her subjects, the most admirable and astonishing history had yet recorded, but we must confine ourselves more particularly to that which may be regarded as the origin of our governmental history.

It was her jealousy of rival powers, and her insatiable lust for dominion, which stimulated England again to turn her attention to the new world. She saw with envious eye the rapid growth of Spain in wealth and prowess, and saw too that the source of all was her colonies in America. Means were therefore devised for settling the country, which had only been discovered and carelessly visited.

On the 11th of June, 1578, Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained from Elizabeth a patent, vesting in himself and his heirs, the fee-simple of whatever lands he might discover; authorizing him "to discover and take possession

of all unknown and heathen lands not occupied by any Christian nation; giving him full right and title to all the countries of which he might take possession." Whoever of her subjects were disposed, were also permitted to go and settle in the colonies which he might plant. He, his heirs, and assigns, were empowered to dispose of any part of these lands to settlers, in fee-simple, agreeably with the laws of England. All lands were to be held by Gilbert "of the crown of England, rendering homage, and paying one-fifth of whatever gold and silver ore may be found there." He and his heirs were also invested with complete jurisdiction of the colonies, with all powers and royalties, marine, civil, and military, with power to convict, pardon, punish, govern, and rule, as well in cases capital or criminal as civil, both marine and other, all persons who should, from time to time, settle in those colonies, according to such laws, statutes, and ordinances as by him, his heirs, and assigns, devised and established for their better government. All settlers were to have and to enjoy all the privileges of free denizens and natives of England, any law, custom, or usage to the contrary notwithstanding. And all persons were "forbid attempting to settle within two hundred leagues of any place Sir Humphrey or his associates shall have occupied during the space of six years."

Such were the liberal powers and immunities with which Sir Humphrey Gilbert was invested, and which were to encourage his expedition. His personal worth and distinction, united with the brilliant zeal and efforts of his half-brother, Sir Walter Raleigh, soon gained for him a sufficient number of followers. His success, however, was by no means equal to his exertions. After two attempts at a settlement, he himself perished on the cold and inhospitable shores of Cape Breton. Yet his ill success was owing rather to the mutinies and insubordination of his crew, the absence of any previous knowledge of the country, the wreck of his most valuable vessels, his approaching the coast too far to the northward, and more than all, to the insufficiency of the preparations made for establishing a new colony, than to any lack of ability, energy, or enterprise on the part of Sir Humphrey.

The ardor of Sir Walter Raleigh, however, who did not accompany these expeditions, was not daunted by the unhappy fate of his kinsman. He made application for a grant from the queen, and received a charter containing as liberal a bestowment of powers and privileges. He fitted out several squadrons, which made a few discoveries farther to the southward, but effected no settlement. Yet so glowing were the descriptions they gave of the country they visited, that Elizabeth bestowed upon it the name of Virginia, in memorial that a discovery so felicitous had been made under the auspices of a virgin queen. Raleigh was encouraged also from these representations to expedite further preparations for a settlement of it. Another expedition was fitted out which settled several plantations at the south, establishing the seat of the colony at Roanoke, (August 25,) described as "an inauspicious and inconvenient station." This colony consisted of about one hundred and eighty persons, who were chiefly occupied in making scientific observations, and acquiring a knowledge of the country. Various causes conspired to enfeeble and diminish their number, and to threaten their entire extinction. No recruiting stores were remitted to them, and on the nineteenth of June following, (1587,) they all returned to England.

Among this handful of adventurers, whose necessities thus compelled them to return to their native home, was one Hariot, a man of learning, of

science, ingenuity, and much practical intelligence. He had applied himself assiduously during his adverse residence on the new continent in philosophical researches, and making observations on the soil, the climate, the productions of the country, and the manners, customs, and extent of its native population. The result of his labors was given to the public on his return to England, was sought after and read with avidity, and increased the already glowing desire of the nation for its settlement. Tobacco was the principal production extensively cultivated by the natives, and was at this date first introduced to the acquaintance and use of the polished world. Its introduction gave a complexion to the character of society; for, says the historian of those times, "it was fondly adopted by Raleigh and some young men of fashion."

The gallant and resolute spirit of Sir Walter Raleigh was not discouraged by the failure of these efforts at effecting a settlement. He fitted out another expedition early in the ensuing year, (1588,) under Captain John White, who was accompanied with a larger number of adventurers. These, however, it seems, had not gathered wisdom from the experience and fate of previous settlers, and were apparently surprised to find themselves landed on a shore covered with thick and interminable forests, inhabited by naked savage tribes; and found out, too late to remedy the evils of their condition, that they were but poorly provided with the means of sustenance, or with the implements necessary for their settlement, safety, and comfort, in so wild a region. A request was at once and unanimously made that Captain White would return to England, and solicit from the parent country such supplies as were required for the maintenance and preservation of the colony. His appearance in England with this view happened at a most unfavorable juncture, just as the famous Armada of the 2d Philip of Spain was threatening the kingdom. Raleigh and his coadjutors were now occupied in the more momentous and thrilling interests of their own country. The few and enfeebled adventurers who languished on a distant coast were forgotten or neglected, and left to perish without sympathy or consolation.

And thus terminated the last attempt made during the reign of Elizabeth to settle Virginia. Sir Walter Raleigh, whose splendid accomplishments and commanding genius gave dignity and energy to whatever enterprise he turned himself, by an incomprehensible waywardness of character, had conceived a new project of settling and peopling a large district in Ireland, of which he had received a grant from the queen. Other projects, equally fascinating, and rendered the more attractive to his restless spirit because of the difficulty of their accomplishment, at the same time occupied his attention, and supplanted the late favorite idea of settling Virginia. He parted with all his claims to the territory of this colony, assigning them to one Sir Thomas Smith and a company of merchants, who made no praiseworthy attempts to ameliorate the condition of the country. And it is a remarkable fact that in the year 1603, notwithstanding all the enterprise that had been lavished, the lives that had been sacrificed, and the wealth that had been expended, there was not one white man living in Virginia. Various, as we have already seen, were the causes which had operated to prevent any permanent settlement. The fact is one which addresses itself with a singular interest to the reflective mind. We can hardly avoid the conviction that this continent was marked out by the Ruler of Nations for a spot where should be witnessed the origin of a nation, and the development of principles in the human character, and in human government, such as the world had never

yet recorded. These shores did not, like those lands discovered by the Spanish and Portuguese, abound in mines of gold or of silver ore. They presented only an extended, a luxurious, and fertile soil. They opened no fountains from which the possessors might draw instant wealth, without labor or industry. But their value was to be known, and their profit gathered, only in the fulfilment of that anathema, "by the sweat of thy brow shalt thou earn thy bread." No votary of pleasure; no lover of indolence or of luxury; no effeminate scion of royalty, could find a place convenient for him on these wild and inhospitable shores. They were destined to become the abode of a mighty, magnanimous, and influential people, and must be planted by hardy and well-bred adventurers.

It is not till after the accession of the first James to the throne that we find recorded any further attempts at a settlement of this continent; and the first permanent one was made under his auspices. He divided that part of it which lies between the 34th and 45th deg. of north latitude into two parts, nearly equal. The one he denominated the north, the other the south colony of Virginia. He made a grant of the southern division to Sir Thomas Gates and others, mostly residents in London, authorizing them to settle any part of it they might choose. This portion was comprehended between 34° and 41° north latitude, and extended along the coast fifty miles north and south of the spot where they should first locate, and back into the interior one hundred miles. (April 10, 1606.) This division at length received the name of "The Colony of Virginia," while the northern division was known as "The Colony of Plymouth."

The associations to which the respective colonies were granted, were organized into a company with a charter of incorporation for the purposes of trade, with power to have a common seal and to act as a political body. There was, however, something new in the design of their organization, and the plan appointed for their regulation was not then an ordinary one. The supreme government of the colony was to be vested in a council, resident in England, and appointed by the crown, and the colony to be regulated by such laws as this council and the crown should direct. Subordinate jurisdiction was committed to another council, resident in America, which was also to be appointed by, and subject to, regulations prepared by the crown. Emigrants were to enjoy all the rights, privileges, and immunities of free-born subjects of England, and to hold their lands by free and common socage. Exports necessary for the colonies were to be sent free of duty for the space of seven years; trade was allowed them with foreign nations, and duties on foreign commodities imported into the colonies, were to be appropriated for the special and sole benefit of the colony for the space of twenty-one years.

In conformity with this charter, the crown took frequent occasion to prepare such regulations as in its wisdom were deemed proper and expedient for the discipline and government of the colony. The superintending council, to be resident in England, was created. Legislative and executive powers were vested in the president and council in the colony, but were not to extend to life or limb; all their enactments must be in conformity with the laws of England, and were only in force till made void by the council and crown in England. High crimes were to be punished in the parent state and lesser offences by the president and council at their discretion. Allegiance to the crown was insisted on, and the church of England established. The power of the crown was in all cases paramount.

Looking back to this period of our history, upon these charter regulations, we discover readily the origin of those principles of government in the colonies which afterwards became so obnoxious to the colonists, and so fatal to the power of the crown in America. They seem wholly to disregard the actual political rights of the settlers; and that they should have met with so ready an acquiescence among them may be ascribed to the cares, perplexities, and embarrassments incident to a new settlement, and the seeming advantages with which these exceptionable features were accompanied. "Thus," says an eminent historian, "without hesitation or reluctance, the proprietors of both colonies (Virginia and Plymouth) prepared to execute their respective plans, and under the authority of a charter which would now be rejected with disdain, as a violent invasion of the sacred and inalienable rights of liberty, the first permanent settlements of the English in America were established. From this period the progress of the two provinces of Virginia and New England form a regular and connected story. The former in the south, and the latter in the north, may be considered as the original and parent colonies, in imitation of which and under whose shelter all others have been successively planted and reared." Yet, as the settlements made in Virginia were of an earlier date, it will better serve our present purpose to trace their history separately, and then proceed to that of New England. These settlements, as we have before observed, were made under peculiar and great disadvantages. Many and severe were the trials, the difficulties, the dangers and sufferings with which the colonies in their infancy had to contend. And it will be neither a tedious nor unprofitable task to trace particularly their advancement, and mark their progress through all these perils, till we find them attaining a rank and consideration, which, from its more intimate bearing on our own governmental history, deserves our more interested attention. "It will exhibit a spectacle no less striking than instructive, and presents an opportunity which rarely occurs of contemplating a society in the first moment of its political existence, and of observing how its spirit forms in its infant state, how its principles begin to unfold as it advances, and how those characteristic qualities which distinguish its maturer age are successively acquired." So says one who was equally illustrious as a philosopher, an historian, and a scholar. And in each of these points of observation there is much to be learned, and much to be treasured up by every citizen of America.

Various causes from time to time transpired to change the condition of the colonists in their relations to the mother country, and which gave a complexion and a shape to their political destiny. To trace these in their minute details through all the progress of their history, would be a tedious and perchance an ungrateful task, and would not exactly accord with our present purpose; a brief reference to their results will accomplish our aim, and compensate our toil.

The original charter, whose general provisions we have already referred to, received occasional alterations, but these were of a nature rather to abridge, than to enlarge the liberties of the colonists, and to strengthen the odious prerogatives of the crown and council in England; and the very first act of authority exercised by the council in America, was arbitrary and oppressive. One of its most valuable and efficient members was excluded from his seat in the board, and the more ambitious and unprincipled conspired to concentrate all power in their hands. Thus, in the very outset, showing how ill-adapted was the plan of government devised, to promote or

to secure the interests of the colonists. The very individual, however, whom they had contrived to put down, soon after became the most prominent and influential man among them. Thus early evincing as it were, that this was the land where reason should triumph over passion, justice over prejudice, and liberty over oppression. In one of those periods so frequent in our early history, which "try mens' souls," which draw out all the energy and the worth of the individual, the talents of Captain Smith alone were equal to the task of accomplishing the preservation of the colony. The settlers were at this time jaded by repeated disasters, without provisions, scarcely clothed, victims to all the maladies incident to new countries, enfeebled, wasted, lessened, and superadded to all these trials, were daily threatened by the fierce, the merciless, the unrelenting savage. They were alarmed by the dismal war-yell; and the tomahawk and scalping-knife were whetted for their destruction. In this emergency, Captain Smith was chosen to superintend the affairs of the colony. By his skill and exertions, the natives were driven back and discomfited; a small town was erected of raw materials for their defence, and the sinking colony was restored again to life and vigor. Fortunately, may we not say providentially, to give greater efficiency to his noble exertions at this crisis, a ship arrived with supplies from the mother country, and the uninterrupted remittance of these saved that germ of a future nation from final and complete desolation. It continued to prosper under the beneficial administration of Captain Smith till 1609, when he returned to England. He left it with a population of about five hundred inhabitants, sixty comfortable and convenient dwellings, various implements of husbandry, and other requisites for its growth and preservation. The life and vigor which he had infused, however, seem to have departed with Captain Smith. For no sooner had he left it, than the colony relapsed into a disorderly state of faction and misrule. Every principle of self-preservation seemed to have been lost, and it was fast verging towards destruction. Being divided among themselves, they became a more easy prey to the wiles of the natives, and must inevitably have perished, but for the timely arrival of Lord De La War and others, who recruited their diminished number to six hundred, supplied their necessities, and restored among them union, harmony, and good government.

Lord De La War was appointed successor to Captain Smith in the office of president, and entered upon the discharge of his official duties with energy, firmness, and decision—1610.

From this period we may date the permanent and prosperous settlement of the colony. Under the auspices of a benign policy of government, for which they were indebted to the benevolent and liberal dispositions of their president, rather than to any change in their charter regulations, property became more extensively distributed, and individual enterprise consequently awakened. Being more at leisure from the necessities which attended their earlier history, individuals found time to devote themselves more carefully to the concerns of the colony generally. Turning their attention to their charter regulations, they began to discover the injustice and injury of many of its provisions, and gradually to emerge from that quiet spirit of acquiescence in which they had long rested. Many popular orators arose in their assemblies, whose denunciations of the policy of the crown and council in England were bold, manly, and energetic. The spirit of liberty soon swelled beyond the measure of the shackles which had been imposed upon them, and from this, her very cradle, went forth loud and incessant cries

that to them should be extended, all and unqualified, the privileges of free natives and denizens of the mother country. In 1621, Sir George Yeardley, then governor of the colony, called a general assembly, composed of delegates from the several plantations in the colony, and permitted them to assume and to exercise the high and proud prerogatives of legislators. Eleven towns or corporations were represented in this convention. Its enactments were not many, or of much importance, except an act dissolving martial law, which had been exercised over them with great rigor and severity. The principal aim of this convention was, and it had the effect, to soothe the spirit and the feelings of the colonists, who rejoiced at beholding among themselves the exercise of the privileges and functions of English freemen. This was the first representative assembly ever held in America, and it was truly an important and interesting era in our governmental history. It gave the colonists a taste for liberty, which could never thereafter be offended with impunity, and resulted in the procuring of a new charter, which established the government of the colony in a more constitutional and enduring form. The legislative powers were vested in the governor, who represented the king; and jointly in council named by the company, which was supposed to answer to the peerage; and partly by delegates to the assembly, chosen from among the colonists, by themselves, answering to the house of commons. At least such is the analogy fondly traced by English historians, always exulting to make their own "glorious and unrivalled constitution of government" the origin and source of all free principles. But if we trace the governmental history of the colonies with an observant eye and an unbiased observation, we may discover far more interesting and important developments of free republican principles, and a more noble and generous regard for the rights of man, in their departures from, than in their assimilation to, the constitution of the mother country.

Under this new organization, either branch of the general assembly was controlled by a majority of votes, and a negative on their enactments was reserved in the governor. But no law could be carried into effect, or was binding on the people, until ratified by the general council of the company in England, and returned to the colony with the sanction of its seal; and it was also provided that the general assembly should "imitate and follow the policy of the form of government, laws, customs, and manner of trial, and other administration of justice used in the realm of England, as near as may be."

Under a policy of government so much more favorable to the interests of the colonists, though in many important provisions very objectionable, the colony continued to flourish. Numerous and frequent accessions were made to their settlements, by the arrival of new adventurers, which also increased the number composing their representative assemblies. The growth and deliberations of these bodies led to a still further exposition of the odious features inherent in their form of government, made them more tenacious for their rights, and emboldened them to a noble daring in asserting and defending them. James and his ministers looked with jealousy and apprehension on all these symptoms of strength and independence, and various efforts were made to check the freedom of their discussions, and bring them back again to their original state of quiescence and submission. But these efforts tended only to unite the colonists more firmly to each other. The king finally had recourse to his prerogative, and in its unjust and arbitrary exercise, issued a commission appointing and empowering

commissioners to inquire into all the transactions of the company from its first organization. The result of this investigation, the most infamous and tyrannical, was, as designed, a pretext for depriving the company of its charter, a consequent dissolution of its incorporation, and an escheat of all the privileges, powers, and immunities it had conferred.

Although the existence of this company had not been favorable to the rapid prosperity of the colony of Virginia, although its government over the settlers was in its spirit and provisions most rigorous and arbitrary, and tended rather to their oppression, still its dissolution was regretted. It was more easy of resistance, and as we have seen, had been practically deprived of most of its power, and awed from the exercise of its most odious prerogatives, by the proud and indignant resistance of the colonists to any unwarrantable infringement of their privileges. But the entire prostration of the company, and the assumption of absolute control by the crown, seemed a heavy and fatal blow to all their flattering hopes, and robbed them of their few and hard-earned liberties.

James now (1624) issued a special commission appointing a council of twelve persons to take temporary direction of affairs in the colony, till he might himself find leisure to frame an appropriate and permanent code for its government. We will not stop to speculate upon the probable consequences to the colonies from the ordinances his wisdom and sagacity might have seen fit to adopt. Death, that haughty leveller of all human projects and aspirations, withdrew him from the scene of life.

Yet it is neither idle speculation, nor unprofitable, to note the changes consequent upon the *interruption* of his plans. It is one of those striking and startling incidents, so abundant in our country's annals, which teach us that there is a providence presiding over and directing the destinies of the world, and regulating the allotments of mankind, which serve to attach us to our own institutions, by the enforced conviction that they were in their origin and progress, and will be in their continuance, the objects of His especial protection. The progress of our history will determine the value of these suggestions.

It is well known that the first Charles was not unlike his predecessor in his ideas of sovereignty, though of a more weak and wavering character. He adopted the same maxims in reference to the colonies in America, and declared them to be a part of the empire, annexed to his crown, and subject to its jurisdiction. The council appointed by his father was empowered, conjointly with Sir George Yeardley and a secretary, to exercise supreme authority, obligated to conform, however, to whatever instructions they might from time to time receive from the crown. It was no part of his provisions, nor was it his design to revive, or even to countenance the assemblies of the people, or to allow them any voice or influence in enacting laws or imposing taxes; and for nearly the whole period of his rule they were governed by this council and the crown. Their property was invaded; with but unimportant exceptions they were prohibited all trade, and knew but little of the rights and privileges of "English-born subjects." Yeardley, not being pliant enough to obey the directions of the crown, was succeeded by a governor who was rapacious, unfeeling, and tyrannical and loaded the colonists with oppressive indignities. In a transport of rage, their loyalty pressed beyond the limit of endurance, they seized him and sent him a prisoner to England. So summary a method of redressing their own wrongs was revolting to Charles's ideas of the submission and

nomage due from his subjects. It was regarded as a daring act of rebellion, and the governor was sent back again with powers less limited, and with enlarged prerogatives.

At about this period (1630) Charles was visited with domestic troubles, and found less leisure to interest himself in the difficulties existing abroad. Accordingly, a more lenient policy was countenanced, which should have a tendency to conciliate the colonists; and in this change of measures Sir William Berkeley, a man of superior worth and intelligence, of mild and engaging manners, was appointed governor. He was directed to proclaim that, in all its concerns, civil as well as ecclesiastical, the colony should be governed according to the laws of England. He was also directed to issue writs for the election of representatives of the people, who, with the governor and council, should form a general assembly, clothed with supreme legislative power; and to erect courts of justice, to be governed in their proceedings by the forms of England. Thus were the rights of Englishmen again secured to the colonists, and under the auspices of this excellent governor, the colony advanced in prosperity, with but little interruption, for the space of forty years. Without pausing to solve the motives which may have influenced him, and which have been the theme of frequent speculation, the colonists were indebted to Charles for that reformation in the constitution and policy of government which gave so agreeable a complexion to their institutions, and infused new life and a healthful vigor into its administration. The restrictions to which they were subject were but few, and do not appear to have been regarded as oppressive, being principally of a nature to secure their connection with the parent state. The population of their settlements increased, industry and enterprise were successful in all the occupations of life, and the commercial relations of the several colonies were so established as to give security and the prospect of revenue to the mercantile interests, in which flourishing condition they continued, without any material change in their governmental regulations, down to the time of the revolution in England, when the colony contained more than twenty thousand inhabitants.

We do not find in the enactments of the colony of Virginia as wide a departure from the laws of the mother country as we shall discover in those of the colony of New England. The common law of England was regarded in the former as the foundation of its jurisprudence; and its legislature stated, with apparent pride, soon after the restoration of the second Charles, that it had been their care "in all things, as near as the capacity and constitution of this country would admit, to adhere to those excellent and often refined laws of England, to which we profess and acknowledge all due obedience and reverence." And Sir William Berkeley, in his reply to the lords commissioners in 1671, says, "Contrary to the laws of England we never did nor dare to make any (law) only this, that no sale of land is good and legal, unless, within three months after the conveyance, it be recorded." All the charters from this period, respectively provided for the operation of the common law in the several colonies; and the provision was regarded by them as an important right, so far as applicable to their situation and circumstances. The other provisions which gave a different complexion to their governmental history from those we have already noticed, and which was an important aid of her code in the colony of Virginia, had reference to ecclesiastical affairs. The Church of England was established as the religion of the colony, and its doctrines and dis-

cipline were enforced by statutory provisions. Non-conformists were obliged to quit the colony. The clergy were provided for by glebes and tithes. Non-residence was prohibited, and a personal, strict, and regular performance of parochial duties was required. Marriages were not celebrated unless published in the parish church, and according to the form in the book of common prayer. Besides these were the laws regulating the descent and distribution of estates, which at first were conformable to the laws of England, but in 1748 an act passed the legislature, adapting them to the peculiar circumstances and condition of the colonists. Estates-tail were cherished, however, with peculiar care, and their zeal to perpetuate family inheritances, seems to have far outstripped the provisions of the mother country. It was also provided that no taxes should be levied by the governor without the consent of the assembly, nor appropriated, when raised, but according to the direction of the legislature. The burgesses, during their attendance, were privileged from arrest.

We have thus traced the most important changes in the governmental regulations of the colony of Virginia, and under these they continued down to the time of our revolution. We can discover, at least thus far, no causes which would probably have led to a separation from the mother country, had the southern colonies never been affected by the spirit which planted and reared the northern colonies. The influences which brought about the settlement of the latter, had not been felt or understood in the policy which dictated the planting of the former. We shall discover a striking contrast between the two sections, running through nearly all their history, governmental, literary, and religious; and may also read evidence of the fact that the pure principles of the Christian religion were the cause, if not of our origin, yet of our prosperity, our liberties, our independence; and to the subversion of these, if ever that day should arrive, some future Gibbon may ascribe the decline and fall of the republic of the United States.

ART. III.—LAKE NAVIGATION OF NORTH AMERICA.

GREAT WESTERN LAKES—ONTARIO—ERIE—HURON—MICHIGAN—SUPERIOR—WELLAND CANAL—LAKE HARBORS—CONSTRUCTION OF PIERS, BREAKWATERS, ETC.—BUFFALO—ERIE—OSWEGO—TORONTO—KINGSTON—VESSELS EMPLOYED IN LAKE NAVIGATION—VIOLENT EFFECTS OF STORMS ON THE LAKES—ICE ON THE LAKES—EFFECTS OF ICE ON THE CLIMATE—LAKE CHAMPLAIN.

THE great chain of inland lakes, whose vast expanse justly entitles them to the name of seas, are the largest bodies of fresh water in the known world, and constitute an important feature in the physical geography of North America. When viewed in connection with the River and Gulf of St. Lawrence, by which their surplus waters are discharged into the Atlantic Ocean, ideas of magnitude and wonder are excited in the mind, which it is impossible to describe. But the effects which they produce on the commercial and domestic economy of the country are considerations far more

important and striking. With the aid of some short lines of canal, formed to overcome the natural obstacles presented to navigation by the Falls of Niagara and the rapids of the St. Lawrence, these great lakes are converted into a continuous line of water-communication, penetrating upwards of 2000 miles into the remote regions of North America, and affording an outlet for the produce of a large portion of this continent, which, but for these valuable provisions of nature, must, in all probability, have remained forever inaccessible.

The great western lakes of America are five in number :—Ontario, Erie, Huron, Michigan, and Superior. The extent of these lakes has been variously stated, and the several accounts which have been given of them, differ very considerably ; but the dimensions which I shall quote are taken partly from the work of Mr. Bouchette, the surveyor-general of Canada, and partly from the charts constructed by Captain Bayfield, of the royal navy.

Lake Ontario, the most eastern of the chain, lies nearest to the Atlantic. The river St. Lawrence, which has a course of about a thousand miles before reaching the ocean, is its outlet, and flows from its eastern extremity. This lake is 172 statute miles in length, 59½ miles in extreme breadth, and about 483 miles in circumference. It is navigable throughout its whole extent for vessels of the largest size. Its surface is elevated 220 feet above the medium level of the sea ; and it is said to be, in some places, upwards of 600 feet in depth. The trade of Lake Ontario, from the great extent of inhabited country surrounding it, is very considerable, and is rapidly increasing. Many sailing vessels and splendid steamers are employed in navigating its waters. Owing to its great depth, it never freezes, except at the sides, where the water is shallow ; so that its navigation is not so effectually interrupted as that of the comparatively shallow Lake Erie.

The most important places on the Canadian or British side of Lake Ontario, are the city of Toronto, which is the capital of Upper Canada, and the towns of Kingston and Niagara ; and, on the American shore, the towns of Oswego, Genesee, and Sackett's Harbor. Lake Ontario has a direct communication with the Atlantic Ocean, in a northerly direction, by the St. Lawrence, and in a southerly direction, by the river Hudson and the Erie Canal, with which it is connected by a branch canal, leading from Oswego to a small town on the line of the Erie Canal called Syracuse.

Lake Erie is about 265 miles in length, from thirty to sixty miles in breadth, and about 529 miles in circumference. The greatest depth which has been obtained in sounding this lake, is 270 feet, and its surface is elevated 565 feet above the level of the Hudson at Albany. Its bottom is composed chiefly of rock. Lake Erie is said to be the only one of the chain in which there is any perceptible current, a circumstance, which may, perhaps, be occasioned by its smaller depth of water. This current, which runs always in the same direction, and the prevailing westerly winds, are rather against its navigation. The shallowness of the water also, which varies from 100 to 270 feet in depth, renders it more easily and more permanently affected by frost, its navigation being generally obstructed by ice for some weeks every spring, after that of all the other lakes is open and unimpeded.

The principal towns on Lake Erie are Buffalo, Dunkirk, Ashtabula, Erie, Cleveland, Sandusky, Portland, and Detroit. Between fifty and sixty splendid steamboats, and many sailing-vessels, are employed in its trade

which is very extensive; and several harbors with stone piers have been erected on its shores for their accommodation.

The surface of Lake Erie is elevated 322 feet above Lake Ontario, into which its water is discharged by the river Niagara. In the course of this river, which is only thirty-seven miles in length, the accumulated surplus waters of the four upper lakes descend over a perpendicular precipice of 152 feet in height, and form the "Falls of Niagara." These falls, with the rapids which extend for some distance both above and below them, render seven miles of the river's course unfit for navigation. The unfavorable structure of the bed of the river Niagara—the connecting link between Lakes Erie and Ontario—for the purposes of navigation, induced a company of private individuals, assisted by the British government, to construct the Welland Canal, by which a free passage from the one lake to the other is now afforded for vessels of 125 tons burden.

This undertaking was commenced in the year 1824, and completed in 1829, five years having been occupied in its execution. The expense of the works connected with it is said to have been about £270,000.

The canal extends from Port Maitland on Lake Erie to a place called Twelve-Mile Creek on Lake Ontario. Its length is about forty-two miles; its breadth at the surface of the water is fifty-six feet, and at the bottom twenty-six feet, and the depth of water is eight feet six inches. The whole perpendicular rise and fall from the surface of Lake Ontario to the summit level, and thence to Lake Erie, is 334 feet, which is overcome by means of thirty-seven locks of various lifts, measuring one hundred feet in length and twenty-two feet in breadth, most of which are formed of wood. The most considerable work occurring on the Welland Canal is an extensive excavation of forty-five feet in depth, from which 1,477,700 cubic yards of earth, and 1,890,000 cubic yards of rock, are said to have been removed.

Lake Erie is connected by the Erie Canal with the river Hudson and the Atlantic Ocean, and again by the Ohio Canal with the river Ohio and the Gulf of Mexico. The Erie Canal is 363, and the Ohio Canal 334, miles in length.

Lake Huron is about 240 miles in length, from 186 to 220 miles in breadth, and 1000 miles in circumference. The outline of this lake is very irregular, and Mr. Bouchette says of its shores, that they consist of "clay cliffs, rolled stones, abrupt rocks, and wooded steeps." Its connection with Lake Erie is formed by the river St. Clair, which conveys its water over a space of thirty-five miles into a small lake of the same name, of a circular form, and about thirty miles in diameter, from whence the river Detroit, having a course of twenty-nine miles, flows into Lake Erie. The communication between the two lakes is navigable for vessels of all sizes.

Lake Michigan is connected with Lake Huron by the navigable strait Michilimackinac, in which is situate the island of Mackinaw, now the seat of a customhouse establishment, and a place of considerable trade. Lake Michigan is about 300 miles in length, seventy-five miles in breadth, and 920 miles in circumference, having a superficies of 16,200 square miles. It is navigated by many steamers throughout its whole extent. The principal towns on the lake, the southern shore of which has now become the seat of many prosperous settlements, are Michigan, Chicago, and Milwaukee. The Illinois river takes its rise near the shores of Lake Michigan, and flows into the Mississippi; and a canal, for the purpose of connecting

their waters, is now in progress ; an improvement which, when completed, will form a second water-communication, extending from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico, a distance of upwards of 3000 miles—the other communication being that already alluded to between Lake Erie and the Ohio by a canal from Cleveland to Portsmouth.

Lake Superior is connected with Lake Huron by the river St. Mary. This river, which is about forty miles in length, has a fall of twenty-three feet on the whole length of its course, and is navigable only for small boats. As yet the march of improvement has not penetrated to this remote region, but ere long, Lakes Superior and Huron, like Erie and Ontario, will probably be connected by a canal. Lake Superior is about 360 miles in length, 140 miles in breadth, and 1116 miles in circumference ; the depth is in some places said to be 1200 feet, and its surface is 627 feet above the level of the sea. Its bottom consists of clay and small shells. This lake is the largest body of fresh water known to exist ; and although surrounded by a comparatively desert and uncultivated country, at a distance of nearly 2000 miles from the ocean, and at an elevation of 627 feet above its surface, it is navigated by steamboats and sailing-vessels of great burden.

From what has been said regarding the great western lakes, it will easily be believed that, notwithstanding the secluded situation which they hold in the centre of North America, far removed from the ocean and from intercourse with the world at large, their waters are no longer the undisturbed haunt of the eagle, nor their coasts the dwelling of the Indian. Civilization has extended its influence even to that remote region, and their shores can now boast of numerous settlements, inhabited by a busy population, actively engaged in commercial pursuits. The white sails of fleets of vessels, and the smoking chimneys of numerous steamers, now thickly stud their wide expanse, and beacon-lights, illuminating their rocky shores with their cheering rays, guide the benighted navigator on his course. Every idea connected with a *fresh-water lake*, must be laid aside in considering the different subjects connected with these vast inland sheets of water, which, in fact, in their general appearance, and in the phenomena which influence their navigation, bear a much closer resemblance to the ocean than the sheltered bays and sounds in which the harbors of the eastern coast of North America are situated, although these estuaries have a direct and short communication with the Atlantic Ocean.

The whole line of coast formed by the margins of the several lakes above enumerated, extends to upwards of 4000 statute miles. There are several islands in Lake Superior, and also at the northern end of Lake Michigan, but the others are, generally speaking, free from obstructions. They have all, however, deep water throughout their whole extent, and present every facility for the purposes of navigation.

It was not till the year 1818, that the navigation of the lakes had become so extensive, and assumed so important a character, as to render the erection of lighthouses necessary and expedient, for insuring the safety of the numerous shipping employed on them. Since that period, the lighthouses have been gradually increasing, and, on the American side of the lakes, they now amount to about twenty-five in number, besides about thirty beacons and buoys, which have been found of the greatest service.

About the same period at which the introduction of lighthouses was considered necessary, some attention was also bestowed on the subject of lake harbors. Many which formerly existed, were then improved and enlarged,

and others were projected, and the works connected with them are now either finished, or are drawing to a close. Several of the ports on Lakes Erie and Ontario have good sheltered anchorages, with a sufficient depth of water at their entrances for the class of vessels frequenting them. But good harbor accommodation is by no means so easily obtained on the shores of the lakes, as, generally speaking, on the sea-coast of the United States. Most of the lake harbors are formed in exposed situations, and as regards the expense and durability of the several works executed in their formation, are much better calculated to resist the fury of the winds and waves, than the wooden wharfs of the seaports on the eastern coast of the country, of which a description has been given in the "Harbors of North America."¹⁸

The town of Buffalo stands at the eastern corner of Lake Erie in the state of New York, and contains a population of about 16,000. As regards the number of its inhabitants, and the extent of its commercial transactions, it is the most important place on the lakes, being in fact the New York of the western regions. From the month of June till the month of December inclusive, during which period the navigation of the lakes is generally open and unimpeded by ice, between forty and fifty steamboats, varying from 200 to 700 tons register, are constantly plying between Buffalo and the several ports on the shores of the lakes. Some of these steamers make regular voyages once a month to Chicago in Lake Michigan, a distance of no less than 965 miles; and one leaves the harbor of Buffalo twice every day, during summer, for Detroit, a distance of 325 miles. The New York and Erie Canal, the earliest, and perhaps the most important public work executed in the United States, which enters the lakes at Buffalo, has a great effect in increasing its trade and importance.

Buffalo is built at the mouth of a creek communicating with the lake, in which the harbor is formed. The wharfs in the interior of the harbor are made of wood, but the covering pier, and other works exposed to the wash of the lakes, are built of stone, and cost about £40,000. The depth of water in the harbor is nine feet when the lake is in its lowest or summer water state. A covering pier has been erected for the purpose of protecting the shipping and tranquillizing the water within the harbor during heavy gales. It measures 1452 feet in length, and its form and construction are so very substantial, that one may fancy himself in some seaport, forgetting altogether that he is on the margin of a fresh-water lake, at an elevation of more than 300 feet above the level of the ocean. The top of the pier on which the roadway is formed, measures eighteen feet in breadth, and is elevated about five feet above the level of the water in the harbor. On the side of the roadway which is exposed to the lake, a parapet-wall five feet in height extends along the whole length of the pier, from the top of which, a talus wall, battering at the rate of one perpendicular to three horizontal, slopes towards the lake. This sloping wall is formed of a description of masonry, which is technically termed coursed pitching. Its foundations are secured by a double row of strong sheeting piles driven into the bed of the lake, and a mass of rubble *pierres perdues*, resting on the toe of the slope. The inner side of the pier presents a perpendicular face towards the harbor, and is sheathed with a row of sheeting piles, driven at intervals of about five feet apart from centre to cen-

* See April number of this Magazine.

tre, to prevent the quay wall from being damaged by vessels coming alongside of it.

The entrance to the harbor is marked by a double light, exhibited from two towers of good masonry built on the pier.

The workmanship and materials employed in erecting many of the other lake harbors, are of a much less substantial description than that adopted at Buffalo. The breakwater for the protection of Dunkirk Harbor on Lake Erie, for example, was formed in a most ingenious manner, by sinking a strong wooden frame-work filled with stones. The frame or crib was erected during winter on the ice over the site which it was intended to occupy. The ice was then broken, and the crib being filled with small stones, sunk to its resting place in the bottom of the lake.

Presque-Isle Bay, in which the town of Erie stands, is formed by the peninsula of Presque-Isle, on the shore of Lake Erie. This bay measures about one mile in breadth, and three miles in length, and affords a splendid anchorage for vessels of the largest size. It opens towards the northwest, and is sheltered from the waves of the lakes by two covering breakwaters, measuring respectively 3000 and 4000 feet in length, projecting from the shore, and leaving a space between their outer extremities of 300 feet in breadth, for the ingress and egress of vessels.

Oswego, situate at the mouth of the Seneca river, on the southern shore of Lake Ontario, is a town of 6,500 inhabitants, having a good harbor. It stands at the commencement of the branch canal, which connects the great New York and Erie Canal with Lake Ontario, and is the seat of several manufactories and mills driven by the Seneca river, on which there are some very valuable falls. The pier, which has been built at this place for the protection of the harbor, is a very good specimen of masonry, finished somewhat in the same style as that at Buffalo, and cost about £20,000. The depth of water in the harbor is twenty feet, and it has a good harbor-light placed in a substantial tower of masonry at the extremity of the pier.

The works required in the construction of Buffalo, Erie, and Oswego harbors were done at the expense, and under the direction of the government of the United States, who have also executed harbor-works of great extent, varying according to the nature of their situations, at the towns of Chicago, Michigan, Milwaukee, and Green Bay, in Lake Michigan; Detroit, Sandusky, Ashtabula, Portland, and Dunkirk, on Lake Erie; and at Genesee and Sackett's Harbor, on Lake Ontario.

The harbors on the Canadian or British shores of the lakes are, as yet, not so numerous. The principal ones are those of Toronto, Port Dalhousie, Burlington, Hungry Bay, and Kingston, on Lake Ontario; and Amherstburg, and Put-in Bay, on Lake Erie.

Toronto, the capital of Upper Canada, lies in a bay which is nearly circular, and measures about a mile and a half in diameter. It is sheltered from the lake by a projecting neck of land called Gibraltar Point, on which the harbor-light is erected. This bay has a considerable depth of water, and affords an extensive and safe anchorage. Port Dalhousie is at the entrance of the Welland Canal, and has two piers, measuring respectively 200 and 250 feet in length, and also some pretty extensive works, connected with a basin for receiving timber. Kingston, situate at the eastern end of Lake Ontario, just at the point where the river St. Lawrence flows out of the lakes, is the British government naval yard. Navy Bay, in which it

stands, is a good anchorage for vessels drawing eighteen feet of water, but is exposed to south and southwest winds. The British government have also executed works in some of the other harbors on the Canadian side of the lakes.

The tonnage of most of the craft employed in the lake navigation is regulated by the size of the canals which have been constructed for the purpose of connecting the lakes, and facilitating the navigation of the St. Lawrence. The locks of these canals are formed of such dimensions as to admit vessels of 125 tons burden, and consequently the lake craft, with a few exceptions, do not exceed this size. The steamboats, however, and all the vessels which are employed exclusively in the navigation of one lake, are never required to enter the canals, and many of these are of great size; some of the new steamers being no less than 700 tons burden. The art of ship-building, which is practised to a considerable extent in almost every port, is greatly facilitated by the abundance of fine timber produced in the neighborhood of the lakes; and to so great an extent has the art been carried on, that during the war a vessel called the *St. Lawrence*, of 102 guns, was launched by the British, at Kingston, and another by the Americans, at Sackett's Harbor, which measured 210 feet in length on her lower gun-deck.

The vessels used in the lake navigation, and more especially the steamboats, which I had frequent opportunities of examining, possess, in a much greater degree, the character of *sea-boats*, than the same class of vessels employed in the sounds and bays on the shores of the Atlantic; and the substantial masonry of which the piers and breakwaters on the lakes are composed, renders these works much more capable of resisting the fury of the winds and waves than the wooden wharfs of the eastern coast of the country. The strength and durability of material which both the piers and the vessels present, are, at first sight, apt to appear superfluous in works connected with lake navigation. I was certainly impressed with this conviction when I first saw the stone piers of Buffalo, which I have already described; and the sight of the steamer "*James Madison*," a strongly-built vessel of 700 tons burden, drawing about ten feet of water, which plies between Buffalo on Lake Erie and Chicago on Lake Michigan, was in no way calculated to lessen the impression which the harbor had left; an impression which was heightened by the circumstance of my having, a short time before, examined the harbors on the eastern coast, and seen many of the slender fabrics, drawing from three to five feet of water, which navigate the bays and sounds in that part of the country. But, on inquiring more particularly into this subject, I was informed that these lakes are often visited by severe gales of wind, which greatly disturb the surface of their waters, and give rise to phenomena which one hardly expects to find in a fresh-water lake. In the opinion of many of the captains of the steamers with whom I conversed on this subject, the undulations created during some of these gales are no less formidable enemies to navigation than the waves of the ocean, so that the greatest strength in the hydraulic works and naval architecture of the lakes is absolutely necessary to insure their stability. In the harbor of Buffalo, which is situated in the northeast corner of Lake Erie, and has an unobstructed expanse of water extending before it for a distance of about 180 miles, the effects of the waves are very remarkable. The pier at this place is built of blue limestone. The materials are small, and no mortar is used in its construction; but the stones are hammer-

dressed, well jointed, and carefully assembled in the walls, and the structure, as before noticed, both as regards the materials of which it is built, and its general design, is calculated to stand a good deal of fatigue. On examining this pier, however, I was surprised to find that it was in some places very much shaken, and, more particularly, that several stones in different parts of the work had actually been raised from their beds; but this work, as well as most of the harbors on the lakes, has annually to undergo some repair of damage occasioned by the violence of the waves. I measured several of the stones which had been moved, and one of the largest of them, weighing upwards of half a ton, had been completely turned over, and lay with its bed or lower side uppermost.

I met with another striking example of the violence of the lake waves on the road leading from Cattaraugus to Buffalo, which winds along the side of Lake Erie, in some places close to the water, and in others removed several hundred feet from its margin. The surface of this road is elevated several feet above the level of the lake; but, notwithstanding this, many of the fine large trees, with which the whole country is thickly covered, have been rooted up and drifted across the road by the violence of the wind and waves, and now lie along its whole line piled up in the adjoining fields. Every winter's storm adds to these heaps of drifted timber, and they will doubtless continue to be enlarged till the increasing value of the lands on the margin of the lake, which, in their present state, are wholly useless in an agricultural point of view, renders the erection of works for their protection a matter of pecuniary interest to the proprietors.

The following extract also, from the Annual Report of the Board of the New York State Canals for 1835, shows the severity of the lake storms:—
“The method of towing barges by means of steamboats has been very successfully practised on the Hudson river; but on the lakes, though a great many steamboats have been in use for several years, the plan has not been adopted, because the steamboats cannot manage barges in a storm. We have been informed of a proposition made to the proprietors of a steamboat to take some canal boats from Buffalo to Cleveland; and it was accepted *only* on the condition that, in the event of a storm, they should be at liberty to cut them loose, at the risk of the owners.

“An intelligent gentleman, of several years' experience in navigating steamboats, and the two last seasons on Lake Ontario, informs us, that he considered it impracticable, as a regular business, for steamboats on the lakes to tow vessels with safety, unless the vessels were fitted with masts and rigging, and sufficiently manned, so as to be conducted by sails in a storm; that storms often rise very suddenly on these lakes, and with such violence as would compel a steamboat to cut loose vessels in tow, in order to sustain herself.”

The most striking indications of the extreme violence of these storms are found in those parts of the coast where the lake is of great breadth, and where there is deep water close in-shore. On the other hand, in situations where the shores are contracted, or defended by islands, or where the lake is for some distance very shallow, the water does not appear to be so much agitated by the wind. Such facts regarding the lake storms serve to indicate that the formation of those undulations in the sea, which prove so destructive to our marine works, depends on the action of the wind, and is not necessarily connected with the great tidal wave occasioned by the attraction of the moon and sun, whose influence in affecting the

level of the lakes is quite imperceptible, owing to the smallness of their area compared with that of the ocean. It also appears, from what has been stated, that, to the production of considerable undulations, capable of injuring marine works, or endangering their stability, three conditions are necessary. *First*, That the sheet of water acted upon by the wind shall have a considerable area. *Second*, That its configuration shall be such, that the wind, moving over it in any direction, shall act upon its surface extensively, both in the directions of length and breadth. And, *third*, That the depth of water shall be considerable, and unobstructed by shoals, so as to permit the undulations to develop themselves to a great extent, without being checked by the retardations caused by shallow water and an unequal bottom.

From my own observations, and from what I have heard regarding the form assumed by the lake waves, and the effects produced by them, I am inclined to believe that they bear a strong resemblance to the undulations experienced, during gales of wind, in such land-locked bodies of water as the Irish Sea, which, it is well known, are very different from the long swell met with in the ocean. In all land-locked bodies of water, the waves are short and sudden in their movements, proving very destructive to whatever obstacle is opposed to their fury; but there is a characteristic slowness in the long movement of the ocean's swell, which, it is generally acknowledged, renders it less destructive to the marine works exposed to its action than the waves produced in land-locked seas. It is confidently hoped that the experiments which Mr. Russell and others are at present conducting, at the suggestion of the British Association, on the laws which regulate the undulation of fluids, may lead to some satisfactory results on this subject, so interesting in a speculative point of view, and so important to the engineer.

The great area presented by the surface of the lakes prevents any material variation in their level from taking place, which, in small bodies of water, would be the necessary consequence of the torrents annually poured into them from the melting snow. It is stated that a periodical rise of about two feet on the level of the lakes occurs every seven years; but the facts connected with this singular phenomenon do not appear to be very satisfactorily established. The water of the lakes and the river St. Lawrence is remarkably pure and clear. Mr. McTaggart mentions, in his work on Canada, that a white object, measuring a foot square, may be seen at the depth of forty feet below the surface. From my own observation, however, I cannot say that the American lakes are, in this respect, more remarkable than the Lake of Geneva, the waters of which are certainly very transparent.

The rigor of a Canadian winter, covering the face of the country with snow, and congealing every river, lake, and harbor, produces a stagnation in trade, which cannot fail to have a bad effect on the commerce of the country and the habits of the people, who are compelled to complete their whole business transactions during the summer and autumn months, and remain in a state of comparative indolence during the remainder of the year. Considering the lakes in a commercial point of view, it is impossible not to regret that their navigation is open for so very limited a period. For the space of at least five months in the year, the greater part of their surface is covered with a thick coating of ice; and the same sheet of water which, in summer, floats the vessel of 700 tons, and devastates the shores

with its waves, becomes, in winter, a *highway* for the Canadian sledge. The centre of the lakes, where the water attains a considerable depth, is not frozen every season; but a vast sheet of ice is annually formed round their margins, which almost effectually puts a stop to navigation. Mr. McTaggart mentions that, in the year 1826, the ice at the margin of Lake Ontario was within half an inch of being two feet in thickness; and that, during the winter of the same year, Lake Chaudiere was covered with a coating which measured no less than three feet six inches in thickness. He also made several experiments to ascertain the densities of lake and river ice, from which it appeared that the volumes of six cubic feet of lake, and eight cubic feet of river ice, were each equal, when melted, to five cubic feet of water. The ice on the rivers and lakes does not long retain a level surface. Large flaws make their appearance soon after it is formed, and the whole sheet gradually splits into pieces, which, being united together in great masses or hummocks, resist the action of the sun long after the disappearance of frost.

The period at which the lake navigation closes, is generally about the end of November or beginning of December, and this interruption is never removed before the first week of May.

The only other body of fresh water in North America demanding attention, is Lake Champlain, which lies nearly north and south, dividing the states of Vermont and New York. It is about 150 miles in length, and measures fourteen miles at the point where it attains its greatest breadth. The banks of the lake are in general low and marshy, and for about twenty miles at its southern extremity, it assumes the appearance of a river, hardly affording sufficient space to permit a vessel to turn. This lake is navigable throughout its whole extent for vessels drawing five feet of water, and several fine steamboats ply on it while the navigation is open. The principal towns on its shores are St. John's, Plattsburg, Ticonderoga, Whitehall, and Burlington, at which last place the steamboats for its navigation are built. It is connected with the river Hudson by the Champlain Canal, but it discharges its surplus water into the St. Lawrence by the river Richelieu, called also the Sorell, on which the towns of St. Dennis, St. Charles, and Sorell, are situated. The chief trade of Lake Champlain consists in exporting iron ore and timber; the iron is sent to New York by the canal, and the timber to the St. Lawrence by the river Richelieu. Its waters are exceedingly pure, and are subject, during the wet seasons of the year, to great augmentation. The captain of the steamer by which I travelled informed me that, in the spring of 1816, when the snow was leaving the ground, the surface of the lake rose to the height of nine feet above its summer water level. Its navigation, like that of the other lakes, is suspended for five months in the year by ice, and transport is carried on during that period by sledges, which run on its surface.

COMMERCE OF THE LAKES.

The following passage is extracted from Captain Marryatt's new work:—"How little are they aware, in Europe, of the vastness and extent of commerce carried on in these inland seas, whose coasts are now lined with flourishing towns and cities, whose waters are ploughed with magnificent steamboats, and hundreds of vessels with merchandise! Even the Americans themselves are not fully aware of the rising importance of these lakes, as connected with the west. Since the completion of the Ohio canal, which enters Lake Erie at Cleveland, that town has risen almost as rapidly as Buffalo."

ART. IV.—CAUSES OF UNSTEADINESS OF THE CURRENCY, AND THE REMEDY THEREFOR.

RESTRICTIONS UPON THE TRADE IN MONEY.—FRANCE, GREAT BRITAIN, AND
THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER FIVE.

WE come now to inquire, "Why is it that so large an amount of capital seeking investment, should exist in France and England, while so small an amount is to be found in New England; and why is it that the amount in South Carolina and Georgia should be greater than in Massachusetts or Rhode Island?"

In the early period of every community, those who have capital which they cannot themselves employ, experience much difficulty in placing it where the security is perfectly satisfactory; and those who wish to borrow, experience equal difficulty in finding lenders. A desires to lend \$500, but those who would borrow want \$750 or \$1000, and his capital remains idle until he can find some one who wishes the exact sum that he has to lend, and can offer the proper security therefor. B could use \$1000 advantageously, but, on the other hand, he can do nothing with the \$500 of A; nor, on the other, does he desire to borrow \$1500 from C. Lenders and borrowers lose their time, and their capital and labor remain unemployed. They are in the same situation in regard to money as they would be in regard to shoes, if each journeyman shoemaker were to travel up and down the street until he could find some one whose feet would fit the shoes he had made, and who desired to purchase. Many would go barefooted because of the difficulty of finding shoes to fit their feet, while the shoemaker would starve because of the difficulty of finding feet to fit the shoes. In both cases, the difficulty would be removed by establishing a place of exchange, called, in one case, a shoe shop, and in the other, a bank, to which persons would bring the shoes, or the money, they desired to part with, and at which those who desired shoes, or money, would make inquiry, bringing their feet and their securities to be fitted.

In some countries, men establish shoe shops, or money shops, when and where they please, and they regulate with their customers the terms upon which they will trade together. In others they are not permitted to open such shops except in certain places fixed upon by government, nor are they permitted to arrange with their customers the terms upon which they will do business, they being established by law. It is a well-established fact, that regulations and inspections tend in all trades to produce unsteadiness, and if such be the case in regard to flour and fish, it is not probable that it could be otherwise in regard to the great standard of value. The disadvantage resulting from such regulations, in regard to any commodity in general use, is considerable, but that which results from restrictions upon the trade in money, is as much greater as the contracts for the delivery of money are greater than those for the delivery of any other commodity, *being, as they are, equal in amount to the contracts for the delivery of all other commodities, including houses, lands, stocks, and property of all descriptions.* We shall now proceed to examine the banking systems

of France, Great Britain, and the United States, with a view to see if we can find in them the cause why unemployed and unproductive capital abounds in England and France, while in Massachusetts and Rhode Island there is scarcely any that is not directly invested for the benefit of its owner. If we find that, in the first, legislative interference forbids the investment of capital, and causes it to accumulate in the form of currency, while in the latter a high degree of freedom tends to promote its prompt and permanent investment, and forbids its existence in that form, we shall then be able to see that the remedy is to be found in the abolition of restrictions, and in the establishment of perfect freedom of trade.

In RHODE ISLAND, at the date to which we have referred, the trade in money was almost perfectly free. Those who desired to lend out their capital were at liberty to associate for that purpose, and they appointed agents to attend to their business. After complying with certain forms, the object of which was the insurance of publicity, they were free to trade with their neighbors on such terms as they might mutually deem most advantageous.* They could say to those who traded with them, "You may deposit in our hands whatever surplus money you may have, and *our joint capital* shall be responsible to return it to you, or to deliver it to your order; or we will give you in lieu of it our notes, with which you can pay any demands that may be made upon you. We will afford you all these facilities without charge of any kind, and we will be content if, from the use of the capital you deposit with us, we can derive as much interest as will pay the expenses of management. All that we expect to get is simple interest for our own capital."

The consequence of this entire freedom was, that in no community that ever existed has there been, at any one time, so little capital seeking investment. Any attempt at overtrading on the part of the banks would, of course, produce an increase of the currency, and an increased difficulty of making investments; but the remedy was so prompt and so readily administered, that the capitalists could at once check it. They could say to the bankers, "You are overtrading, and the consequence is, that we can no longer obtain the usual rate of interest. You are trying to make 8 per cent by making money 'plenty,' and 'cheap,' and by the same measures you are forcing us down to 5. It would be perfectly in your power to do so, *if hedged round by legislative restrictions*; but such is not the case. We are all now equal. If you possessed exclusive privileges, you could force us to pay 20 or 30 per cent advance on cost for a share of bank stock, giving us our choice to do that or go to Vicksburg, or New Orleans, seeking employment for our capital. Your rights and ours are the same, and if you can lend out *our* capital for *your* benefit, we can as well lend it out for our own. You have a quantity of our money in your hands, producing *us* nothing while it yields *you* 6 per cent. We offer you the choice of three methods of proceeding: first, you may hand us over the notes purchased with it; second, you may retain it as an addition to your capital, giving us certificates of stock for it; or third, you may return it, and we will open a shop next door, at which we will lend it out for our own profit. In the latter case, you may, and probably will, find that in forcing us to open a money shop for ourselves, you are making a rival, and that

* The application to the legislature was little more than a form, the charter being granted almost as a matter of course

time will prove to you that there may be too many such shops for the business to be done, as there may be too many shoe shops."

Were capitalists perfectly free, such would be their universal mode of action, until banks learned that their own interests required that they should not increase the inducement for the establishment of rivals. Under a system of perfect freedom, the traders in money would be as unwilling to do any thing tending to increase the number, as would the traders in shoes or hats. If they did, the capitalist would apply the remedy, and speculation would be checked instantly. There would then be no inducement to create houses or ships, roads or canals, in advance of the demand. The power of banks to overtrade would be diminished, and the necessity for reduction never could arise.

The gradual manner in which capital finds its way into any trade, when free to do so, is finely illustrated in this state. The annual report on the banks contains a column headed "increase of capital since last return," and in that column we find one bank adding \$300, a second \$500, a third \$26,750, a fourth \$60, a fifth \$15,000, &c. In this manner capital is permanently invested as it is accumulated, instead of being left uninvested to produce disturbance and agitation. Under a system like that of Rhode Island in 1830, currency can never exceed that amount which is indispensable for the transaction of business, and it can never be more than is barely sufficient to enable bankers to pay their expenses by the interest derivable therefrom, because whenever capital employed in banking will yield a fraction more than the usual interest, a portion of the deposits will be converted into bank stock, by which operation the profits derivable from the currency will be diminished, while the amount of capital entitled to a share of it will be increased.

It will be observed that our remarks apply to the system that existed in 1830. Some years thereafter the legislature imposed restrictions upon all future associations for the purpose of trading in money, and the consequence is that the system is less sound, and more expensive.

In May, 1838, the following was the condition of all the banks:—

Capital and surplus fund, \$10,410,000	Investments, . . . \$13,493,000
Nett circulation, . . . 1,508,000	Specie, 416,000
Deposits, 1,945,000	
Dividends unpaid, . . . 31,000	
\$13,894,000	\$13,909,000

The currency is 140 per cent greater than it was in 1830. The liabilities of the banks have grown from one and a half millions to three and a half millions. Many of the owners of bank stock now receive 7 and 8 per cent, while the owners of the capital upon which they trade, leave it on deposit returnable on demand, yielding no interest, or returnable at short notice, yielding 4 or 4½ per cent. Security, steadiness, and equality, are diminished by law.

In MASSACHUSETTS, we find almost perfect freedom, except the imposition of a tax of 1 per cent on banks, which forbids the application of capital to that trade until it will yield a gross profit of 8 per cent, to be thus divided—

Stockholders,	6
Expenses,	1
State,	1
	<hr/>
	8

A considerable amount of capital remains unemployed, and the consequence is, that the currency is unnaturally expanded. Its amount in 1830 was \$7,292,000, being about 35 per cent of the banking capital, whereas, had there been no tax, a part of the deposits would have been converted into bank stock, the liabilities of the banks would have been diminished, the amount of capital seeking investment would have been greatly reduced, and steadiness would have been nearly complete. The conversion of two millions of deposits into stock would have produced the following state of things :—

Capital, \$22,520,000	Loans, \$26,825,000
Currency, 5,292,000	Specie, 987,000
	<hr/>
\$27,812,000	\$27,812,000
The amount of interest accruing would be	\$1,609,500
The expenses would be	224,000
Dividend at 6 per cent,	1,344,000
	<hr/>
	1,568,000
	<hr/>
Surplus,	\$41,500

Here would be perfect equality and steadiness. There would be no inducement to send capital to Mississippi, or Arkansas, in search of dividends.

It will be said that banks occasionally fail in both Massachusetts and Rhode Island. Such is the fact.

In Massachusetts, a large amount of capital belonging to the government, which was not at liberty to employ it, was placed in several banks, managed by persons whom individual merchants would not have trusted to any great extent. Intoxicated with the command of so large an amount of money, they were led to speculate largely; and when at length, after the passage of a law for that purpose, those deposits became currency, payable on demand, they were unable to reconvert their houses and lots into money, and they and the banks they controlled stopped payment. Independently of this cause, however, there were two failures of banks in Rhode Island,* and five in Massachusetts, in the *quarter century* from 1811 to 1836, by which the community lost probably seventy or eighty thousand dollars. It is one of the advantages of free trade, that every trader in money knows that he must stand or fall by his own acts, and that if he overtrades and gets into trouble, there will be none to help him. In the middle states, where banks overtrade largely, they feel that all must stand or fall together, and therefore sound institutions are sometimes obliged to burden themselves with the support of unsound ones; but in Massachusetts there is a degree of independence that forbids the necessity of so doing, any more than there would exist on the part of the solvent shoemakers, or tailors, to

* The bank commissioners, in 1837, remarked with great truth, that the banks of the state had always "sustained an enviable character, as compared with those of many others of the United States."

pay the debts of one of their neighbors of the trade, lest all shoemakers or tailors should lose their credit. The more perfect the freedom of trade, the smaller must be the liabilities of banks, the less must be the danger of change in the amount and value of the currency, the smaller must be the risks of banks in their dealings with individuals, and the smaller must be the risks of the community in trading with banks.

IN THE OTHER NEW ENGLAND STATES, freedom of trade is less perfect than in the two to which we have now referred. Capital accumulates while waiting to find the means of investment, and the currency is unnaturally expanded. Banks trade upon the capital of others, and when the time arrives for repayment, it sometimes happens that they are unable to redeem their obligations. Here we have more restriction and less steadiness: more currency and less equality of profit.

In the MIDDLE and SOUTHERN STATES, there is still less freedom of trade. Persons possessing capital which they would gladly lend out, are prevented from opening shops for that purpose, because of the difficulties attendant upon obtaining permission to trade in the manner that is usual with bankers. No man will do business with a bank that will not afford him the usual facilities of trade, by receiving and guarding his funds, and by transferring the same by means of checks and notes. No man will undertake to afford these facilities, if his whole property be liable for the return of such moneys, unless largely paid for such risk. He can obtain such compensation only by means of largely overtrading, to accomplish which he must maintain a large circulation and have large deposits. Trade is already too free to permit the accumulation of unemployed capital to the extent required to give him such profits, and he is therefore compelled to let his capital remain in bank for the benefit of the stockholders of those institutions who have obtained permission, in the form of acts of incorporation, to trade with their customers on the footing of limited liability. The consequence is, that these latter are enabled to divide 7, 8, 9, or 10 per cent, while large amounts of capital lie idle, yielding no return to the owners, who would gladly take 6 per cent at home, but in default thereof are compelled to send it to Kentucky or Mississippi. The currency is large, liable to sudden and rapid increase, to the injury of the capitalist, who is, by restrictions, deprived of the means of protection.

At one time the banks increase their loans largely, and the necessary consequence is a great increase of deposits. This prompts to a further increase of loans, which leads to a further increase of deposits, consisting of capital the owners of which find a daily increasing difficulty in obtaining interest.

Commencing with the following state of things,

No. 1.	Capital,	\$20,000,000	Loans,	\$30,000,000
	Circulation,	5,000,000	Specie,	5,000,000
	Deposits,	10,000,000		
		<hr/>		<hr/>
		\$35,000,000		\$35,000,000

we find in a few months the following,—

No. 2.	Capital,	\$20,000,000	Loans,	\$35,000,000
	Circulation,	5,500,000	Specie,	5,000,000
	Deposits,	14,500,000		
		<hr/>		<hr/>
		40,000,000		80,000,000

The banks have invested $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions, while the owners of those millions have been seeking the means of using them. Both have been in the market, forcing up prices. The ball thus set in motion rolls on: stocks rise rapidly, and the unfortunate capitalist finds that he cannot obtain more than 5 per cent, while the owners of bank stock are likely to have 7 or 8. The latter have made money "too cheap" for their own benefit, at his expense, and at that of all those who, like him, have to find modes of investing their capital.

Every day increases the currency. Every day increases prices. Stocks rise; then houses, lots, and lands. Railroads and canals follow in succession. The owner of property ceases to regard the amount of *interest* to be yielded by it, regarding only the increase that must take place in its *price*. Farms are converted into town lots, houses are built, new railroads and canals are subscribed for, and the people of Vicksburg, New Orleans, and Cincinnati, send their agents to obtain a share of the vast surplus. The capitalists having thus, at length, found the means of employing their unproductive capital, claim a repayment of the deposits, and now the banks are compelled to demand payment of their debtors. These unfortunates, having half finished their roads, canals, ships, and houses, are compelled to bring them into market in their unfinished state; and now it is discovered that *the same capital has been employed in performing two operations*; that A, B, C, the temporary *employers*, and D, E, F, the actual *owners*, have both been building houses, or making roads and canals, for the purpose of investing the same capital at the same time, and that when half finished, one or other must suspend operations, and perhaps sacrifice what he has done, with a view to enable the other to complete his work. A, B, and C are ruined, and D, E, and F find that the supply of houses or stocks is greater than the demand, and that, after having been kept for months without interest, they must now lose 10, 15, or 20 per cent in the diminished value of the property purchased.

All this would have been prevented in the outset, had the capitalist had it in his power, when the expansion began, to claim of the banker a certificate of stock in lieu of his deposits, or failing that, to unite with his neighbor in opening a shop to lend out their own money for their own profit. The conversion of his deposit into stock would at once have diminished the amount of capital seeking investment, and the tendency to a rise of price would have been checked. Instead of the state of things above, marked No. 2, we might have had, at the same date,

Bank capital,	\$22,000,000*	Loans,	\$32,000,000
Liabilities,	15,000,000	Specie,	5,000,000
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	37,000,000		37,000,000

In comparing the systems of the north and south, nothing is more striking than the difference in the tendency to accumulate masses of capital under the control of individuals. In Rhode Island, there is a bank for every two thousand inhabitants. Almost every village has its money shop, and their capitals vary from 20,000 to 500,000 dollars. In Massachusetts, there

* We shall have occasion to show, in a future number, that perfect freedom, the right to make banks at will, would probably be attended by a diminution in the amount of capital so employed, and an increase in the amount directly employed by the owners.

are now one hundred and thirty-eight banks, but the largest is only \$1,800,000, and only six are equal to \$1,000,000. In Mississippi and Louisiana, on the contrary, we find banks with capitals of five and twelve millions.

Up to the year 1826, the BANK OF ENGLAND enjoyed a monopoly of the right of trading in money, on the footing of a joint-stock association. Private banks existed throughout the country, but they were limited in the number of their partners. Failures among them were so numerous* that the owners of capital became unwilling to place it with them; and the consequence was, that the bank enjoyed the advantage of an immense circulation and large deposits. Her capital was lent to the government at 3 per cent, and the interest thereof did little more than cover the expenses of management. Her dividends were derived from the currency that could be maintained, and they increased with every increase in the quantity of capital, unproductive to the owners, that could be brought into her hands.

In August, 1822, the total amount of circulation and deposits, or currency, was £23,863,000
In 1826, they had risen to 32,402,000

At the first date the loans on interest amounted to . . . £17,290,000
At the second, they were 32,918,000

The unfortunate small capitalist had no remedy. He could not demand of the bank shares of stock, nor could he create them for himself. He could not become a member of a banking-house, nor could he induce such houses to pay him the common rate of interest. He could only, with great risk to himself, obtain $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, until some joint-stock company in Mexico, or Peru, or Chili, or some foreign loan, likely never to be repaid, afforded him a prospect of obtaining abroad that remuneration for the use of his capital that was denied him at home, while bankers and owners of bank stock were receiving 8 per cent, or more, derived from the use of his capital, and that of others similarly circumstanced. Here was an excess of currency, attended with infinite danger, because of the extreme inequality of profit which was forcing abroad that capital for which there was abundant demand at home. The crisis came, and the disadvantage of the system became obvious. Some of the restraints upon association were repealed, and the owners of capital are now permitted to form joint-stock companies, provided they are willing, when their customers ask them to grant the usual facilities of trade, by receiving their funds on deposit, and transferring the same by means of checks or notes, to be responsible in the whole of their individual properties for the repayment thereof. Men of common prudence refuse to come under such responsibilities,† and the consequence is, that large amounts of capital remain unemployed, constituting currency, or on deposit at low interest, liable, at short notice, to

* In 1814, 1815, and 1816, no less than two hundred and forty private bankers became bankrupt. In 1821 to 1830, the number of bankruptcies was one hundred and twenty-five. Mr. McCulloch says, (Dictionary of Commerce, p. 85,) that "the numerous failures that have taken place among them have, by generating a feeling of insecurity in the minds of their depositors, confined this branch of business within comparatively narrow limits."

† Mr. McCulloch says, (Dictionary of Commerce, article Banks,) that "it may well excite astonishment that any one who can really afford to make a *bona fide* purchase of shares in a bank, should be foolhardy enough to embark in such concerns."

become so. Those who incur the hazard have large profits, derived from the excess of currency thus produced, while the prudent and careful have small ones. The dividends of joint-stock banks have averaged about 8 per cent, being double the rate at which their capitals are lent out. It follows that their loans are much more than double the amount of capital.

The amount loaned out by banks is probably not less than eighty millions, yielding interest amounting to £3,200,000, to be divided among the owners of thirty millions of capital. The owners of thirty or forty millions of deposits are compelled to forego all interest, or to take 2 or 2½ per cent, when, if they were permitted to open money shops for themselves, and to trade with their neighbors on such terms as they might mutually judge advantageous, they could have 4 per cent, and their capital would cease to exist in the form of currency liable to change with every wind that blows, and giving to a few individuals the power of raising or depressing prices at pleasure. The following will show the condition now existing, and that which would exist, were all restrictions abolished.

No. 1.		No. 2.	
Capital, - - -	£30,000,000	Capital, - - -	£60,000,000
Currency, - - -	60,000,000	Currency, - - -	30,000,000
<hr/>		<hr/>	
£90,000,000		£90,000,000	

No. 1 gives unsteadiness, insecurity, and inequality of profit, producing vast waste of capital, whereas the other gives steadiness, security, and equality of profit, attended by a profitable application of capital.

Had England had a system like that of Rhode Island, she would have escaped the troubles of 1825, 1836, and 1839. Her capitalists would have obtained moderate profits at home, and would have had no inducement in the first period to engage in the gambling operations of Mexico and South America; nor would they, in the two latter, have found it necessary to administer to the spirit of speculation in the United States, by contributing their means for the erection of railroads and canals through all the states of the west. The law of 1826 was an improvement, and we may hope that the time is not far distant when trade will be set free from all restrictions.

It is usual to attribute the present derangement of the English money market to the necessity for importing corn, but it is really due to restrictions upon the employment of capital, the most important of which are those relating to the trade in money. All of them tend to cause unemployed capital to accumulate, and the corn laws thus tend to increase the danger of injury from the immense mass of currency always existing in England. Under a system of perfect freedom no deficiency of crops could cause a demand upon the banks that would make it necessary for them to change their operations 2 per cent, because there would be no *unemployed* capital in their hands. The small amount of circulation and deposits, or currency, that would exist, must be maintained nearly at the same point under any circumstances. Under such a system, the deficiency of grain would produce no more effect upon the operations of the dealers in money, than upon those of the dealers in shoes or hats. It would be attended by a rise of the price of that commodity, and a diminution in that of all other commodities, without the slightest interference of the banks. The inducements to import corn would constantly increase, while there would be dimin-

ished inducement to import any other commodity than corn. The deficiency would be attended with no other inconvenience than those resulting from an increase in the price of food; whereas, under the present system, the inconvenience resulting from natural causes is quadrupled by those resulting from interferences with the free employment of capital. The laborer is deprived of employment at the moment when the price of food is doubled.

The London Atlas of November 16th, contains the following remarks in confirmation of the views we have offered.

"An opinion prevails almost universally, that the sole cause of the late derangement in our currency proceeded from the deficient harvest of 1838, which obliged us to import a large quantity of foreign corn for food; and that the sum of six or seven millions of pounds sterling being required in payment for the same, constituted so much balance of trade against us, to be liquidated *only* by an exportation of bullion to that extent. Such was the general opinion, and we must confess that, until lately, we viewed the subject in the same light. However, it has since been proved, by reference to the customhouse books, that the increase in the value of goods imported, resulting from the large quantity of foreign corn brought here, has been fully counterbalanced by an increase in the value of the British manufactures exported from the united kingdom. At the official rates of valuation, the exports of British manufactures, in the twelve months ending the 30th of September, 1839, were six millions of pounds more than the exports in the twelve months ending the 30th September, 1838. This shows that the supplies of foreign corn have been paid for by merchandise; and that, *unless other disturbing causes had intervened, our currency might have remained uninjured, and bullion would not have been demanded for exportation on account of the corn trade.*

"We therefore come to the conclusion, that our currency was redundant, and that this led to large importations of American securities of all kinds, which found a ready market here, while English securities were scarce, and offered only a low rate of interest for investments. But this tendency on the part of the public to make investments in American securities, was fomented rather than checked by the Bank of England, which continued, for many months together, to accumulate and abstract from the market such English securities as might otherwise have offered to our capitalists the means of making investments, without being driven into foreign securities. That during the six months, from June to December, whilst the bank reduced her securities and the currency at the same time, there was no material loss of bullion, although very large imports of foreign corn took place in those six months; but in the following six months the bank had greatly augmented the amount of her securities, although she lost in the same period about six millions of bullion, which certainly could not all have gone in payment for corn, because the value of the wheat bought and imported in these six months would not exceed three millions of pounds, or only half of the value of the bullion sent away."

When the bank overtrades largely, purchasing up the securities that individual capitalists would desire to possess, deposits accumulate in her hands, because of the diminished value of money, and the difficulty of obtaining the usual rate of interest. Unless disposed to unite in the formation of a joint-stock bank, the holding of a single hundred pounds stock in which would put at risk his whole property, the capitalist has no remedy

but the purchase of foreign securities. It is the only mode of escape from the tyranny of the bank, and consequently is looked upon with jealous eyes by the officers of that institution. Mr. Horsley Palmer* is anxious that time-bargains in such securities should be declared illegal, and that "heavy penalties should be "imposed upon such transactions." He would also have every bargain for passing such securities made "chargeable with a stamp duty," with "heavy penalties for evasion." Under the existing system, capitalists may remain at home, employing their capital abroad when not permitted to use it at home, but under that of Mr. Palmer they would be compelled to emigrate, "bag and baggage." The bank would have them in a net. It could say to them, "You *can* now no longer make investments in foreign funds, and you *dare not* place your capital in joint-stock companies, where the whole property of every individual member is liable to be levied upon in case of any delay in meeting its engagements. You *cannot* associate with the prudent and the careful, who would be content with safe business and small profits; and you *dare not* associate with those who overtrade largely in quest of large dividends. You *will not* place your capital with private bankers, or with the joint-stock companies that thus overtrade, because the rate of interest is not equal to the risk that is incurred, and therefore you *must* place it with us, because our power is such that we can always save ourselves from the evil consequences of our own acts, although they may be even so great as to render it necessary for us to crush a large portion of the merchants, and of the private and joint-stock bankers. We will give you no interest, but you will be secure." Such would be the language of the Bank of England, under Mr. Palmer's system. The "rest," or surplus, would rapidly increase, and the dividends would again be 8 per cent, until, at length, those who had uninvested capital would find it necessary to transfer themselves and their means to some other country, where they could be at liberty to invest them either at home or abroad.

If, in 1835, or 1838,† the owners of the unemployed capital had had it in their power to create a bank for themselves, to trade on the same footing as the Bank of England, they would have said to that institution, "Pay us our deposits in the securities you have bought with them, or we must open a place of business at which we can lend out our own capital for our own benefit, which will compel you to sell those securities that you may cancel your liabilities. At present those deposits are currency, and in our efforts to obtain means of investing them, we are forcing up the prices of all descriptions of property, but so soon as they are cancelled, in either of the above forms, they will cease to be currency, and prices will fall back to where they started from. We shall then be able to lend out our capital at 4 per cent, and we doubt not that out of the profits of deposits and circulation, we shall be able to pay the expenses of management, while you will experience a diminution of circulation and a diminution of profits." Had they been free so to address the directors of the bank, they would not have found it necessary to purchase American securities. The spirit of speculation would have been checked on both sides of the Atlantic, and instead of existing complaints of unemployed laborers and impoverished capitalists, we should find universal prosperity.

* President of the Bank of England.

† For the effect of the loans of deposits upon the currency in these years, see vol. ii. p. 458.

In SCOTLAND, there never was any restriction upon the formation of joint-stock companies, and hence the system was always more sound than that of England, because less capital remained unproductive. Joint-stock banks commanded a degree of confidence in that country as they now do in England, that private banks wanted.

In FRANCE, we find a universal spirit of restriction. Freedom of trade, whether in money or in any other commodity, is unknown. When the bank expands, there are no means of checking its operations. The owners of capital are driven to gambling speculations of all kinds, to obtain interest for their capital. When it contracts, the speculators are ruined. The government being careful not to make any step towards freedom, there is little reason to hope that the mass of unemployed capital existing in the form of currency will be soon reduced, and until it shall be so there can be no hope of the establishment of steadiness in the operations of that country, so necessary for the improvement of the physical, moral, and intellectual condition of the people.

By comparing the results obtained in the present number with those of number four, the reader will see that the mass of the currency, and its unsteadiness, tend to increase with every increase of restriction. In New England, he will find the nearest approach to perfect freedom, the smallest amount of currency, the nearest approach to perfect equality of profit, and the least power of disturbance; while in France and England, he will find restrictions abounding, producing a great mass of unemployed capital, great inequality of profit, and a great tendency to disturbance of the commerce of those countries, and of the world at large.

It may be asked, "If the system of the United States be really better than that of England, how is it that the former appears to have been so much more seriously affected by the crisis of 1836 and 1839 than the latter?" The answer is, "that England is to the United States in the condition of a lender, and the latter is to the former in that of a borrower." In all cases of change in the currency, the debtor is the one most injuriously affected. The lender has only to say, "you must pay," and the debtor will pay, if he has any regard to his credit, which is the case in the present instance. If the debtor is unable to pay, the creditor may then raise the rate of interest, as the Bank of England does, *thus profiting by the irregularity of the currency*. When that institution finds it necessary to contract, in consequence of having overtraded, she does not fail, *but she compels her debtors to do so*. At one time, she makes money very cheap, enlarging the currency rapidly, at the expense of the capitalist. The latter endeavors to obtain interest, by exporting his capital to the United States. The currency of the latter is now expanded. Prices rise. Importations are large. The bank changes its course and makes money scarce and dear. The capitalist wishes to withdraw that which he has exported, and demands gold from the United States. Prices now fall. Alarm is universal, and the currency is contracted. Importations cease, and the people of England are deprived of employment. No institution in the world possesses so great an amount of power as the Bank of England, and none has ever so grievously misused it, to the injury, not only of the people of England, but of the world at large. Were parliament to guaranty to the stockholders a dividend of 8 per cent for twenty years, on con

dition of relinquishing the monopoly which they now have, it would be the cheapest purchase ever made. Steadiness might then be established; but while the monopoly exists, it is impossible.

With the constantly increasing facility of intercourse with Europe, the people of the two continents are brought into more intimate connection with each other, and are liable to suffer more and more from any error in their respective systems of currency, and they must continue to do so until the errors are corrected.

England is to the monetary system of the world what the heart is to the body. So long as her action is regular, there will be regular action throughout the whole system. There may be local irregularity, but that can only be temporary. If a bank at Cincinnati or St. Louis pursue an injudicious course, issuing too large an amount of its notes, the error is discovered at New York or Philadelphia, *provided they be not themselves in error*. If New York do so, the error is speedily discovered in London, and a demand for bullion tends to correct the procedure.

If New York and Philadelphia go wrong, their error is propagated throughout the union, constantly increasing in extent, until they are compelled to endeavor to correct it at the cost of ruin to the trading part of the community. If London go wrong, the error is propagated throughout the world, as we have recently seen to be the case; and it can be corrected only at an enormous expense of human happiness. It is therefore of the highest importance to the people of the United States that England should adopt a system tending to promote the profitable investment of capital at home, and preventing its accumulation in the form of currency.

ART. V.—SPECULATIONS ON COMMERCE.

How wonderful are the results of commerce! Yet we scarcely notice them; in fact, we are scarcely sensible of their extent and variety. They are around us, like the air we breathe—so common, that we either overlook them altogether, or neglect to appreciate them as we ought to do. To say nothing of the effects of commercial intercourse in promoting civilization or in advancing the cause of Christianity, topics important enough and extensive enough to demand a separate consideration, how greatly does commerce promote our personal comfort and our individual convenience! We partake of its advantages every hour, enjoy its comforts with every meal, and perceive its benefits at every fireside. We are indebted to commerce for our every-day conveniences, and every night that we sleep upon a bed of down, or curled hair, we are indebted to the enterprise of the merchant for the luxury. Look at the commonest table, and in ordinary cases you will find it supplied with many of the products of foreign countries, or of their manufacturing establishments. You see everywhere the evidences of commerce; the result of the sagacity of our merchants, and of the skill and indomitable spirit of our seamen. The rare and valuable, as well as the more ordinary and less luxurious productions of every climate, the rich and costly, as well as the less expensive and more substantial manufacture of every people, are, by the united capital, enterprise, and labor of these

two classes, offered alike to the poor and the wealthy. Such is the spirit of our merchants, and such the skill and daring of our navigators, that no sea is left unvisited, no country unexplored, which can yield any thing for the purposes of trade, or for the promotion of the great objects of life.

As a comparatively new country, we are necessarily greatly indebted to commerce. We are yet dependent on others for some productions which our own soil and climate are capable of producing. We are yet dependent on others for some articles which our own skill and industry may hereafter easily provide for us. We are yet dependent on others for raw material, which our own resources, when fully developed, will abundantly afford. But these things are daily becoming less imperative. We are fast becoming, more and more, a manufacturing people, and consequently, less and less dependent on foreign countries and foreign artisans. But we are still wedded to the work of foreigners, and often, from mere habit, give it the preference. In addition to this, we scarcely know, as a community, what we do manufacture. We are occasionally surprised when told that such or such an article is of American workmanship. We never dreamed that anybody on this side of the Atlantic had thought of manufacturing such an article. It never occurred to us that it would be worth the while to direct any portion of our capital and industry to the production of an article of such small import, and it is true that many articles are now manufactured in this country of which the mass of our citizens know nothing.

The effect of this, it might be supposed, would be to lessen commerce, and diminish, in no small degree, our intercourse with foreign nations. But it is not so. The diminution, for a long series of years, would scarcely be perceived, so slowly do American articles get into use, and so rapidly does our population increase. Excepting with a very few articles of manufacture, the product of our own establishments falls so far short of the increasing demand, that the amount of importation actually increases at the rate of some ten or twenty millions per annum, while our exports have increased but few millions, and in some years have sensibly lessened. These statements are easily susceptible of proof, from previous pages of this magazine. Besides, we can hardly mention an article of any importance, heretofore supplied to us by foreigners, which is not still an article of importation.

Commercial intercourse also, is constantly introducing new articles among us, which go far, not merely to keep up the usual amount of our annual importations, but to increase it. So that, in fact, there is no diminution to commerce perceptible at present, by reason of our manufactures. Whether there ever will be any, whether it must not always be on the increase, are questions not necessary to be considered now. It would seem that so long as the world subsists, so long as nations, kingdoms, or tribes continue, so long as there are different climates, different seasons, and different productions, there can be no termination or falling off of commercial intercourse. Commerce is simply the traffic of nations, and traffic cannot cease so long as there are people to carry it on. The intercourse of civilized nations, the main instrument and the most powerful agent of civilization and refinement, is itself a portion of the spirit of civilization, and when it ceases, it would almost seem that mankind must return to an original state of barbarism.

It is to be kept in view that in relation to commerce, as in regard to all

the operations of civilized life, the great object to be sought, the great end to be gained is, not money or property merely, but HAPPINESS. The ultimate object of all the business of life is, or rather should be, the greatest amount of human happiness. This consideration, however, may not always enter the calculations of the merchant; yet it is the true object of commerce. It is the object of life, and therefore emphatically the object of commerce, to make life agreeable, comfortable, happy. The importer of a cargo of teas from "the farthest Indies," however, can hardly be expected to calculate on the happiness the domestic use of that article may or may not produce. He cannot be presumed to go into the consideration of such a subject, in making up his voyage; to estimate all the pleasant little family and social parties which are to be enjoyed over each separate parcel of it; to figure up all the small-talk, the tea-table tattle which may follow the enjoyment of each portion. He rather calculates the chances of profit, or as the hardy seaman would say, the "main chance;" he looks at the prices per pound in Canton, the expenses of the voyage, freight, insurance, exchange, &c., and the state of the market at home. These being satisfactory to his mind, he plans and carries through the enterprise. Whether he prospers or not, the community enjoy the advantage of his labor and capital.

It may be said, we are aware, that if the merchant does not calculate upon the good he may do, in projecting a voyage, he is influenced by a love of gain, by selfish or avaricious motives. But we think this does not follow: in the first place, the merchant, when he enters upon his business in life, knows that he *cannot* labor for himself alone; no man can labor for himself alone, in any profession; and that, therefore, the man who devotes himself to an honest calling, does in some degree, from that circumstance alone, promote the public good. The merchant knows, too, that his various enterprises, whether they result profitably for himself or not, and, even if only partially accomplished, are productive of public benefit, inasmuch as he employs many trades, professions, and a large number of men, in each step of his various operations. So that, after all, the happiness which may flow from his labors, does not altogether, or mainly perhaps, depend on the cargo of his ship, the commodity he exports or imports. But suppose, for the sake of illustrating the point, that a love of gain or avarice does impel the merchant in his undertakings. This very passion, bad as it may be thought, may impel him to do that which will make people happy; and if he makes people happy by a lawful, honest, and praiseworthy enterprise, is he not a benefactor of mankind? The world, however, cares but little about the *motives* of the merchant, and assuredly has no right to impugn them. He is influenced by similar motives as other men, when they design the accomplishment of a similar object; and they may or may not affect his own happiness, but are not felt in the community.

We were speaking of the results of commerce, and whatever others may say, we are free to acknowledge, and to claim for it, that it has done much for the benefit and happiness of mankind. Nay more; we should almost say that it has done every thing for him. To commerce he is indebted for civilization, and, under Providence, for the spread of the Christian religion; and without these great blessings, what is man? True, it may have produced some evil in the world; what real good has not? Name to us any blessing man has ever enjoyed, which has not been, in some form or other, productive of evil, and we will yield our opinion without further argument. The truth is, there is no such thing as unmixed good in the catalogue of

man's enjoyments or endurances. There is nothing, and can be nothing, linked with man's imperfectness, of unalloyed goodness. Let us not be misunderstood on this point, not even by the designing; some things, nay, many things—indeed, we came near to say, all things—are *good in themselves*. Truth is good, in itself and of itself; but what is *truth* separated from *every thing besides*?

A word more for the merchant: it is no fault of his, as we shall contend, after all that has been said, that a consideration of human happiness, does not always enter into his calculations of a voyage. The evidence he consults supersedes this or implies it, and it is manifested to his perception in the state of the market or the demand. The *demand* is his criterion, and is the only evidence of want which he can know. It is his business to supply the want, and the supply of all the wants of the community embrace the results of commerce. The character of the want, or its moral effect when supplied, are matters which belong to the intelligence and virtue of the community to regulate. It is for society, by a high moral influence, to guide and govern its necessities, and the business of the merchant to supply them. We have seen that he fulfils his duty; that he supplies our necessities, and administers to our comfort and happiness every hour in the day. Let us see, for example, how our account stands with him at the present moment, even in our own little corner. This quill he furnished to us; the penknife, which lies by our hand, happens to have been brought from England in one of his ships; the desk we write upon came from beyond seas, in the timber of a warmer climate; that wedgewood inkstand is also an imported article; the oil in our lamp was once in his ships; and so we might go on; but, thanks to the skill of our own countrymen, we may use of our own paper, and Walkden's British ink powder, we apprehend, will prove to be an exception to one of our first remarks. We are surrounded with articles provided for our use by the enterprise of the merchant, and brought to us from all quarters of the world. If we should go back a few hours, and see how our account stands with him through the day, we should perceive our greater indebtedness. At our meals, whence that beautiful china, that cutlery, the sugar, tea, coffee, molasses, spices, sweetmeats, fruits, and wines? The merchant has supplied them all. He feeds, clothes, and warms us. We live, enjoy, luxuriate, in the comforts he provides, whether he calculates upon our happiness or not; and are hourly enabled to do the business of our hands by the implements and instruments furnished by his agency. Are we not, then, indebted to him? Is not his an honorable calling? Is he not the benefactor of his race? Who does more for the happiness of mankind, who runs greater risks or assumes heavier burdens, who more deserving the praise of the good and the applause of the just, than he who provides for, civilizes, and Christianizes his fellow-men?

WHITE LEAD OF MISSOURI.

The white lead manufactured by Joseph Cherless & Co., of St. Louis, is pronounced by competent judges, to be equal to the best imported article. "So far as we can form an opinion from the color," says the St. Louis Republican, "we cannot discover any inferiority in this article with the very best brought to this market. They are now manufacturing largely at the above establishment, and are prepared to fill orders to any extent."

**ART. VI.—THE MERCHANT SERVICE.—PRIMARY SCHOOL
FOR SEAMEN.**

WE have received the following communication and memorial from an intelligent merchant of South Carolina, upon a subject which we consider of great national importance.

The establishment of a school for the instruction of boys in nautical exercises, who would otherwise grow into manhood without education or the means of honestly subsisting, is an object no less beneficial to society, to the youth thus provided for, and to the commercial interests of the nation, than it is honorable to the whole country, as an enlightened, Christian, and philanthropic measure. We trust that the noble object which is so disinterestedly urged by our correspondent, will receive that attention and support from our citizens at large, and from our government, which it so eminently deserves. We will not pretend to say that it is within the scope of any constitutional provision to establish and support the proposed school; but it seems to us that the broad power given to congress by that instrument in regard to the regulation and encouragement of commerce, ought to embrace the means which are so directly and strongly calculated to promote our commercial interests, as the scheme which is recommended. It is well known that the number of American sailors is comparatively small, and even this limited number is constantly decreasing. While almost every other pursuit in life is thronged and sometimes crowded by our industrious and enterprising citizens, but few fathers can be found willing to suffer their sons to become sailors, and a general dislike seems to exist in the minds of Americans against embarking in that profession. And what is the inevitable consequence? It is to fill our marine service with dissipated unprincipled foreigners, or worthless native born seamen; and to shut out those who would man our merchant ships if they could find sailors to associate with, who were free from vice and immorality.

The naval school recently established by the United States government for the instruction of youth, although in its infancy, has already furnished the most flattering evidences of its usefulness; and we can see no reason why the proposed system of instruction for the merchant service cannot be made equally, if not more beneficial; and if it cannot be constitutionally adopted, and carried out by the general government, we trust the period is not far distant, when individual liberality and philanthropy will be found here, as in France, ready to undertake and effect its successful accomplishment.

We give the communication and memorial of our correspondent entire, and earnestly recommend to our readers their attentive perusal.

New York, August 12th, 1840.

TO FREEMAN HUNT, ESQ.

Dear Sir—I beg leave to address you on a subject, which, I trust, you will not find unworthy a place in the highly valuable work you edit, under the title of "Merchants' Magazine, and Commercial Review," which contains so much interesting commercial intelligence.

This subject is a Primary School for Seamen, on a very simple and economical, though efficient plan, which I am endeavoring to bring before

the commercial community, after having in vain called the attention of the government of the United States, and invited congress to institute such schools in the different ports of the Atlantic and lakes.

It is not for me, a foreigner, although long a resident and adopted citizen of the United States, to start such a project; but I hope that this may reach the eye of an influential and patriotic man, who may feel the same interest in it as I do, and recommend the plan to the public authorities, or to some benevolent society.

It would be superfluous for me to enlarge upon the facts, that native American seamen become every day scarcer, that our merchant vessels are mostly manned with foreigners, that captains experience the greatest difficulties in completing their crew, and that vessels are often detained for the want of sailors.

Of this, every one has been long aware, and remedies have often been suggested; but they were either not effective, or not put into operation. Congress has, I believe, passed a law obliging every captain to take a certain number of apprentices; but I believe also, that it is in most cases evaded. The list of the crew shows the quantity of boys, but they are generally cabin boys, or nearly of age, and have been before to sea, while green hands are most always avoided.

This arises from the reluctance of captains to take boys whom they would have to teach before they could be of any service on board. Of this, I had, a few years ago, a good opportunity to judge. A strong, smart, and well educated lad of about fifteen years, the son of an acquaintance of mine, came to me expressing his wish to devote himself to navigation. Being extensively engaged in shipping business, I was well acquainted with many consignees and captains of vessels, and I applied to at least fifteen of them, to take this lad before the mast, without any wages for one year, and offered to fit him out. The only, and unanimous objection of these captains was, that they preferred to take a less number, but all experienced sailors, than to be troubled with a boy who could not understand their commands, and could not distinguish one rope from another.

This remark is conclusive, and many captains with whom I have conversed, have confirmed my opinion, that the chief and only difficulty lies in the ignorance of boys of the technical language, and of the duties they have to perform on board of a vessel. Would it not be the same in our counting houses, if apprentices offered themselves who had not had the first rudiments of reading, writing, arithmetic, &c.?

It is really a singular anomaly, that sailors should be so scarce, and their wages so high, when, at the same time, complaints reach us from every quarter, that all trades are overdone, that distress and want of employment are general, that our streets and prisons abound with idlers, vagabonds, and criminals; while the useful class of sailors diminish every day, and boys cannot be had to fill up vacancies.

It was in March, 1838, that I happened to find in a Havre paper, a description of a school for boys intended for the merchants' service, which had been established at Bordeaux, in France, by two individuals, who, without public aid, undertook the benevolent task at their own expense and risk.

It struck me immediately, that schools of that kind, established in the different ports of the United States, would fully remedy the evil, and I sent the paper to the Hon. Levi Woodbury, Secretary of the Treasury, who

honored me with a very polite answer, in which he approved highly of the plan, and said that he handed the same to the committee on commerce, of the house of representatives.

The subject not being taken up in that session, and feeling very anxious to see so good an example followed in this country, I brought it, in December, 1838, before the chamber of commerce of Charleston, where it was received with general and enthusiastic approbation. A committee, of which I was a member, was appointed to draft the following petition to congress, which was sent for action to every representative from South Carolina, and also to the different chambers of commerce in the United States, requesting their co-operation. The petition was referred to appropriate committees in the senate, and in the house of representatives, where nothing further was done, and probably never will, one of the leading members of the South having expressed himself unfavorably in regard to the unconstitutionality of the plan, saying that agricultural and commercial schools might be proposed to any extent upon the same principle.

To the Honorable the Speaker and Members of the House of Representatives of the United States.

THE MEMORIAL OF THE CHARLESTON CHAMBER OF COMMERCE,

Respectfully Represents,

That the number of native American seamen in the employment of the merchant service in the United States has long been, and still is, quite inadequate to the wants of our increasing commercial navy; insomuch as to make it necessary for masters and owners, for the proper equipment of their vessels, to take into employ foreign seamen, belonging to the different maritime nations in Europe. This, your memorialists conceive, is a measure fraught with inconvenience, and in time of European war, might lead to disputes and collision with other powers. These United States, your memorialists think, are now sufficiently populous to afford a supply of sailors, both for our public vessels and the merchant service, if proper means were used, to encourage the youth of our country to embrace the profession of the sea.

That these states are amongst the first nations of the world, in regard to foreign trade; and that this eminence will increase with the growing population and resources of the country, can admit of no question. Our ships of war must necessarily increase also; and to whom ought the people to look for the manning of that navy but to their own sons?

That in the opinion of your memorialists, the best school for bringing up and making thorough seamen, is the merchant service. In proof of which your memorialists need only adduce the instances of superiority, in every respect, which were exhibited by our vessels of war, when opposed by any thing like equal force, in the last conflict with England. These battles were fought by men taken from our merchant ships, and principally from the hardy tars of New England, who soon were accustomed to the duty and strict discipline of a man-of-war. And thus it will always be, with seamen who have been thoroughly bred.

Your memorialists, on these considerations therefore, respectfully suggest, that it would be highly useful and patriotic, if your Honorable House would take the whole subject into consideration, and cause to be framed a bill, making provision for the preparatory education, professional instruction, and maintenance of boys of or over twelve years of age, in all the principal ports of the Union, including the ports on the lakes. That these youths, after one year's instruction, under competent teachers, should be indented as apprentices to owners or masters, until of the ages of from eighteen to twenty-one years, the vacancies in the schools of naval instruction to be filled by others who are fresh. That an old vessel might be purchased and fitted up at each port, for the accommodation

of the youths ; and so prepared, as to afford them in port the opportunity of acquiring the rudiments of the profession, under proper regulations and competent teachers. That after this course of preparatory instruction, those interested in navigation would readily apply for, and take them as apprentices.

Your memorialists would further suggest, that each and every merchant vessel in the United States, of from seventy-five tons to the largest class, should be obliged by law to take these apprentices, according to their tonnage, in such proportion as your Honorable House may think proper and expedient.

That on such a plan as this, your memorialists conceive, a large and effective body of native seamen could be raised and kept up, in a few years, who would be advantageously employed in time of peace, and in war, honorably engaged in the service of the republic. In addition, it might be urged, that the measure would be desirable, not only as one of sound policy, but of humanity ; for by such means, many indigent boys might be rescued from the fangs of infamy and vice, and made useful members of the community, who otherwise might be lost to their connections, themselves, and their country.

Your memorialists therefore pray, that your Honorable House will speedily take such order on the subject, as in your wisdom may seem meet, and as its real importance seems to require ; and to pass such a bill, as may best secure the advantages which it appears to promise to the country at large.

And your memorialists will pray.

Dated at Charleston, South Carolina, this 5th December, 1838.

(Signed)

In behalf of the Charleston Chamber of Commerce,

DAVID ALEXANDER, *President.*

(Seal of the Chamber)

ATTEST,

WILLIAM B. HERIOT, *Secretary.*

Since that period, I have been much gratified to find that other schemes have been proposed, and that the experiment has been made, by appropriating a government vessel for the purpose, in which a large number of boys are admitted and educated for the navy. The result is exceedingly satisfactory, and I hope that it will encourage our executive to multiply these public schools.

So much has been done for our navy ; but commerce, the main-spring of our prosperity, requires as much, and perhaps more, of the fostering care of our legislators ; and if they will do nothing for it, we must do it ourselves, and we can do it perhaps better, and certainly with less expense, and probably with more efficiency.

A place like the Long Island farms, at some distance from the city, an old vessel with a full set of rigging and every thing belonging to it, three or four teachers, cheap clothing and provisions, would cost but a paltry sum in comparison with the immense benefits that would be gained by such an establishment.

Several hundred boys would every year be saved from the road to perdition, and become useful members of society. Applications from captains would no doubt be numerous, and in proportion to the extent in which the schools were carried on, the expiring class of American seamen would be replenished.

It will be seen by the extract from the Havre paper, which I have translated for your use, that two single individuals have, at their own expense, in less than nine months, furnished the French merchant vessels with one hundred and twenty-nine apprentices, and that in the very beginning of their experimental institution.

All that is necessary, is to teach the boys the names of every part of the vessel, and the different duties of a sailor. This is learnt in a short

time, especially when it is done in so easy, and, to them, so amusing a manner.

I should like to see such a school established in the House of Refuge, where it would be likely to confer a greater benefit than any trade that may be taught to its unfortunate inmates. A boy who has been for some time in that place is generally lost for his whole life. To say nothing of his progress in vice by his connection with other boys, a stain is on his character, which perhaps will never be washed away by the best behavior, as long as he has so many witnesses of his degradation around him. But if he is sent to sea, and held under a strict discipline, he may reform, and time, industry, religion, and virtue, may finally restore his reputation, and preserve his character from future disgrace.

I remain, sir with much esteem,

Your obed't serv't,

J. F. ENTZ.

From the "*Journal du Havre*," of the 20th October, 1837.

The philanthropic zeal of two worthy mariners of Bordeaux has, not long ago, endowed that extensive commercial city with an institution which promises the most happy results.

Messrs. Laporte have had the generous idea and the courage to establish at Bordeaux a school for apprentices for the merchant service, leaving to other mercantile ports the glory of imitating an example set with such noble disinterestedness.

The following notice, borrowed from the "*Moniteur*," will explain the principles on which this excellent preparatory school for seamen is founded, and how it will aid to moralize the offspring of the poor class, and to form for the navy the best seamen, of which this country may be proud.

"In the month of December, 1836, an institution, exceedingly useful, and promising the greatest benefits for our navy, was formed in Bordeaux, under the direction of two retired sea captains.

"Messrs. Laporte Brothers, observing the daily increase in this city, of a number of boys, who, either for the poverty of their parents, or for want of employment and education, became the prey of idleness and vice, formed the resolution to save them from their impending danger. They applied to the parents, that they might be placed at their disposal, offering to undertake their instruction in nautical exercises, and their education for the navy; in short, to prepare them so as to make them useful on board of merchant and government vessels.

"This benevolent idea does Messrs. Laporte the more honor, as they acted only from the impulse of generous hearts, and with means far from being large.

"Their noble exertions have been crowned with the most complete success. This interesting foundation was at first a mere experiment on a moderate scale, but such has been its progress that these gentlemen have now the gratification to know that their perseverance has bestowed upon Bordeaux an establishment which, under the name of "*Ecole des Moussettes et des Novices*," strides rapidly on in improvements and extent.

"May their good example soon meet with imitation in other maritime places!

"Since the 1st of January, 1837, this school has admitted nearly 200 pupils, out of which number the following have already gone to sea:—

62 on foreign voyages,

67 in coasting vessels, and

55 are still in the establishment, receiving their daily instruction. More than 50 candidates are waiting for vacancies.

"I will now proceed to give a few details on the management of the school.

"An old church, lately used as a warehouse, has been rented on a long lease by Messrs. Laporte, in which they have erected, at their own expense,—

1st, The masts of a vessel of about 200 tons.

2d, A complete set of rigging.

3d, An undulating platform, (*pont à roulis.*)

4th, A moveable yard with rigging, (*une vergue mobile, avec ses agrès.*)

5th, An assortment of fire and other arms.

6th, Fishing implements.

"Every morning, at daylight, the exercises begin with the signal given by the mate's whistle. Immediately, the pupils, dressed in sailor jacket, leather belt, and tarpaulin hat, make their appearance, and in detachments repair to their respective stations. At the command of the directors, some climb up the masts to set and take in sails, while others take a reef out, upon the moveable yard, which, being pulled by ropes fastened to the extremities, is agitated as if it were by a high rolling sea.

"While these operations are performed with the utmost precision and agility, other boys are employed in making spun yarn and ropes, and another group manœuvre with musket, under the tuition of a military officer.

"Some are listening to lectures on the lives of distinguished mariners, a few are trying to keep their balance on the platform during its undulating motion, and the youngest are exercising nautical gymnastics.

"Of course, instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic, &c., are also given.

"I was lately present to see them perform, and was highly astonished as well as gratified, to notice the zeal and alacrity which animate these boys, who are constantly stimulating each other during these, to them, amusing exercises.

"They have two large boats which they man by turns every evening, and taking a sail down the river, learn to row, under the superintendence of the directors.

"Swimming being a necessary part of a nautical education, they are taken three times a week to bathe, in the king's dock.

"These pupils are now often employed by captains returning home, to assist in unrigging their vessels, and several are often engaged for the fitting out. The moderate compensation received for it is some assistance in the expenses of the establishment, which, for the essential service it renders to so many families, obtains from the city authorities a liberal supply of provisions."

RECENT PUBLICATIONS.

1. *The Law Reporter.* Edited by P. W. CHANDLER, of the *Suffolk Bar.* Boston: Weeks, Jordan & Co. Monthly, pp. 40. 1840.

THE second volume of this law journal was completed in May last, and the third is now in the course of publication, in monthly numbers, of forty pages each. The main object of the work is to furnish accurate and condensed reports of interesting cases in advance of the regular reports, and to present a monthly digest of the most popular English and American reports, as they issue from the press. The most important legislative doings of the several states are noticed from time to time, and the work also contains miscellaneous articles on different branches of the law, and obituary notices of deceased lawyers and judges of distinction.

The late day at which American reports of judicial decisions are published in the authorized volumes, has long been a subject of complaint with the legal profession; and the mercantile community have also been occasionally sufferers from this cause, as new and important decisions by courts of high jurisdiction are thus often kept for many months from the public.

and costs are not unfrequently incurred in reference to points which have been already judicially determined. A monthly periodical publication, in which pains are taken to publish, *immediately on their decision*, cases of importance, and which may be transported to all parts of the country by mail, cannot but be useful in disseminating correct legal information derived from the best sources, in a country of so broad extent as ours.

Many eminent judges and lawyers appear to have contributed their opinions for publication in the work before us. Among them, Judge Story has furnished his most important opinions for two years past, immediately on pronouncing them; and we learn from the concluding remarks of the editor, at the end of the second volume, that, for that length of time, the opinions of this learned and accomplished judge have not been reported in any other volume. Contributions have also been received from Chief Justice Gibson, and Judge Hopkinson, of Pennsylvania; Judges Davis, Shaw, Dewey, Wilde, and Thatcher, of Massachusetts; Professor Greenleaf, Attorney-general Austin, and many other distinguished gentlemen.

The numbers of the work already published contain at least one hundred and fifty new decisions, which, at the time of their publication, had not been reported in the regular reports. There is also a large amount of legal information to be found here collected, and the most important legal decisions in England are noticed. We consider the work as useful and interesting, and hope it may succeed according to its merits.

2. *German Literature. Translated from the German of Wolfgang Menzel.*
By C. C. FELTON. 3 vols. Boston: Hilliard, Gray & Co. 1840.

This is no book for an after-dinner lounge; it is a feast in itself; a profound and complete treasure-house key to the most wonderful literature man has ever known. No country but Germany could have given birth to this book. No age but this fearfully prolific one, could have furnished such a luxuriant field to this wide-sweeping critical scythe. There is a very world in these volumes. Philosophy, religion, science, poetry, pass in full survey; each with its countless multitude of devoted followers.

And not merely the surface of things is seen, the names of books and the general character of their contents, as in too many criticisms in our own language. Menzel probes the hidden depths, he penetrates and lays bare the causes of the revolutions in the republic of letters. He tells us never, that it *happened* that such a tone was taken by the taste of historians or divines, or by the reading public. He shows the secret influence which turned the literary producer or consumer away from other channels to this new and strange one. For instance, in exhibiting the present tendency of Germany to pious mysticism, and therefore to the Roman Catholic church, he shows the necessity of this transition. He shows that Protestantism, having "stopped half way," having neither liberty nor life, the public mind is obliged to find its onward course by this winding channel. And, in the self-same chapter, the reason of such various religious manifestations as now prevail everywhere, is most philosophically shown in the widely various temperaments which distinguish mankind.

And not only is Menzel profound, he is full of life. There never was a book of criticism clothed in such warm colors, breathing such an earnest spirit. At times there are passages of genuine eloquence; and then again

his wit, even in the translation, (a work of no small difficulty, but of wonderful success,) quite overpowers you. One has, in many a passage, the strange style of German humor preserved without change, for his enjoyment. How does he burst out upon the affected and sickening books of devotion which inundate his native land!

"The language of the Bible seems to them altogether too rude and unmannerly; and so they extract from it, as from the powerful forest plants, a little drop of essence only, mingle it with sugar, put it up in fine post paper, with a neat device, and give it to the dear little babes of grace, to swallow as a godly sugar-plum!" (p. 203, vol. i.)

There are prejudices enough in the book; we have done expecting a book which has none; we know not what it would be worth, but as the index to an ice-house. Menzel's carry their own cure. His cordial hatred of Voss and Goethe are too apparent to need a caution; and, in the latter case, too wholesome to permit an apology. His sarcasm is really terrible. He leaves nothing but the ashes of Hegel, the atheist. The famous John Muller, whose "Universal History," was republished here, with such a flourish of trumpets, is torn to tatters. "Under the mask of a republican, he served and betrayed every patron; under the mask of freedom, he was always a cringer; under that of patriotism, a traitor; under that of honesty and integrity, an accomplished knave! Formerly, it was enough for one to cast himself humbly at the conqueror's feet; now-a-days, however, one must thank the conqueror, in the language of John Muller, for having freed us." (vol. ii. p. 14.)

Many will be frightened, as we were, at the idea of such a vast work of criticism on a foreign literature. But, they have only to take it up to find kindling within them an interest in the wonderful scroll it unfolds, the story of that most original and immense literary productiveness, which, often as we hear of it, seems every time more marvellous than before.

Think of a father's having to choose among a library of fifteen thousand different works, written and printed in Germany for youths under sixteen; or, a circulating-library reader among the six thousand new novels which come out there in a score of years; or, the general student among the one hundred thousand works which appeared in his country from 1814 to 1835! Are we not buried in thought under the mountain weight?

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3. *A Treatise on the Law of Landlord and Tenant, in a series of Letters, addressed to a citizen of New York.* By JOHN N. TAYLOR, Esq., Counsellor at Law. New York: Charles Wells. 12 mo. 1840.

The object of this treatise is to furnish a concise and general outline of the law of landlord and tenant, as it now exists in the state of New York, unincumbered with technical phrases; laying down, at the same time, all the leading elementary principles, in language suited to the ordinary capacity of every man, and adapted to the use of those extensive classes whose rights and obligations are the subject of inquiry. Mr. Taylor has of course drawn his information from decided cases of acknowledged authority,—regardless of reference, which would be of no use to the general reader, who has no access to the bulky volumes through which they are scattered. Cases are, however, frequently stated for the purpose of illustrating a general principle, from which the man of common sense may

be enabled to judge of the aptitude of his own case, to the principles laid down. As the whole community is, in fact, divided into two great classes, of landlords and tenants, a treatise of the character of Mr. Taylor's must prove highly useful to all classes of society, from the large landed proprietor, whose income is derived from his rent, to the humble occupant of a single apartment, who contributes to its payment; while the merchant and mechanic feel an equal interest in all those rights and remedies which relate to the protection and enjoyment of their homes and firesides. On the whole, we consider the work well adapted to popular use.

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4. *The Useful Arts, considered in connection with the applications of Science. With numerous engravings.* By JACOB BIGELOW, M. D., Professor of Materia Medica in Harvard University; author of the Elements of Technology, &c. 2 vols. Boston: Marsh, Capen, Lyon & Webb. 1840.

It is the peculiar feature of the present age, and especially of our own country, that just in proportion as knowledge can be applied to practical purposes, do we deem it valuable. Heretofore, books have been considered the luxury only of a few, comprising that class who possess the most leisure, and without the motive to practical industry furnished by the necessity of exertion. A new era in this respect has begun to be witnessed. The number of practical works illustrating the different arts, in connection with science, has of late years greatly augmented, and we find these works widely diffused among that large class of the community who labor with their hands. Men of the most splendid talents and ripe scholarship have found time, nor have they deemed it a humiliating duty, to give their personal aid, by the agency of lectures and the publication of books, to the cause of popular and practical education. Among others eminent in this labor, we might designate the name of Lord Brougham in England, and those of Story, Webster, Everett, Dewey, and Channing, of our own country, who have personally delivered lectures before mercantile and mechanics' institutions, for the benefit of the working and business classes. The present is within the scope of what may be denominated *practical works*. It contains an historical account of the condition of ancient art, illustrated by an engraving of a pyramid of Egypt, restored by the French antiquarian, Casas, to its supposed original state, with its porticoes and obelisks, and its avenues of sphinxes and statues. The work embraces the prominent facts connected with the most important useful arts, accompanied by suitable engravings, and we cordially recommend it to the large circle for which it is designed.

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5. *The Life and Travels of Mungo Park; with the account of his death, from the Journal of Isaaco; the substance of later discoveries relative to his lamented fate, and the termination of the Niger.* New York: Harper and Brothers. 1840. 18mo. pp. 248.

The volume before us forms the 105th number of the Family Library. Besides a copious and comprehensive narration of the two expeditions of this celebrated traveller, the reader is furnished with a succinct and interesting account of the labors of subsequent adventurers in the same field, bringing down the subject of African discovery to the most recent period.

NAVIGATION.

THE ANTARCTIC CIRCLE.

The editors of the Journal of Commerce have brought together in the annexed schedule all the various points of east longitude where land has been seen, or appearances of land observed, near the antarctic circle, so far as they have come to their knowledge. A degree of longitude in that latitude measures about 26 miles. Consequently, the whole range from longitude 163 to 40, is over 3000 miles. It seems probable that the eastern antarctic continent extends the greater part of this distance. It is remarkable that the latitude of all these points of discovered land is nearly the same, differing only two or three degrees from 60.

EAST LONGITUDE.	REMARKS.	WHEN SEEN. BY WHOM
163 deg. 49 min.	Island or islands, with two volcanic craters, -	1839 Balleny.
154 deg. 27 min.	Land to the E. and S.; seals and penguins seen, -	1840 Wilkes.
151 deg. 40 min.	Solid perpendicular ice cliffs; mountains tending to westward, - - - - -	1840 Wilkes.
147 deg. 30 min.	Lat. 67 deg. 4 min.; distant mountains to E. and W. - - - - -	1840 Wilkes.
140 deg. 30 min.	Sixty miles of coast seen, - - - - -	1840 Wilkes.
130 deg.	Land stretching from S. to WSW. as far as eye could see, - - - - -	1840 D'Urville
127 deg. 7 min.	Appearances of distant mountains, - - - - -	1840 Wilkes.
122 deg. 44 min.	Appearance of land, - - - - -	1839 Balleny.
118 deg. 30 min.	Every appearance of distant land, - - - - -	1839 Balleny.
112 deg. 57 min.	Distant mountains visible, - - - - -	1840 Wilkes.
107 deg. 45 min.	Land plainly in sight, - - - - -	1840 Wilkes.
106 deg. 40 min.	{ Over 70 miles of coast in sight. A sea-leopard seen on the ice; stones and earth taken from an iceberg, some weighing 100 lbs., about 12 miles from shore, - - - - - }	1840 Wilkes.
97 deg. 30 min.	Land seen at a great distance, SW., - - - - -	1840 Wilkes.
58½ to 69 deg.	A considerable extent of land seen, - - - - -	1833 Kemp.
47 to 50 deg.	A long range of land seen, called Enderby's Land, -	1831 Biscoe.
40 deg. 10 min.	Several islands seen, - - - - -	1773 Cook.

THE TRIAL ROCKS IN THE INDIAN OCEAN.

The Trial Rocks were seen in 1835 from the Dutch ship *Jacobus*, on her way from Europe to Java. They were first seen very near in the night, when the ship was hauled off and hove to until daylight; they were then seen again and passed. The captain of that ship gives the longitude by the chronometer 107 deg. 55 min. E. of Greenwich, latitude 29 deg. 35 min. S. In a short run afterwards to Java Head, it was found that the chronometer was 18 miles too far to the eastward; allowing this error, the longitude would be 107 deg. 35 min. E. This is too far east to be in the way of ships which are in the proper track for Java Head, but dangerous to those which are bound through some of the passages of Java.

BRINSMADE'S ISLAND.

Captain Wood, of ship *L. C. Richmond*, arrived at Port Philip, New South Wales, discovered on the outward bound passage an island, situate in latitude 15 deg. 37 min. south, and longitude 175 deg. 25 min. west. It was a large island, well wooded, and apparently thickly inhabited, as he judged, by the lights seen on shore at night. Captain Wood, not finding it in any of the charts, named it Brinsmade's Island.

INVENTION TO PREVENT SHIP-ROLLING AT SEA.

The *Sussex* (England) Advertiser has seen a model most ingeniously constructed, which is to prevent the disagreeable effects produced by the rolling of a ship at sea. From the present construction of the "berths" on shipboard, everybody who has taken a voyage must have experienced the evils of the rolling of a vessel when repose is required; and yet, strange to say, no remedy has been thought of, before the present. It certainly appears to us that this plan will obviate the difficulties complained of, the berths being so constructed as always to keep their horizontal position, the *equilibrium* being the same, whichever way the vessel may be inclined to move, the motion not being perceptible in the slightest degree. The construction of it is on the most simple scale imaginable, the space required being no more than the present berths now occupy, which is a most essential point. In fact, it is the only invention (as regards ease and comfort on shipboard) that has ever been introduced. The inventor of it is Mr. Arthur Guinness, a native of Dublin, who was some few years since employed by the Prussian government as a mechanist.

TYBEE LIGHTS.

The Savannah Georgian says: "We learn from Capt. King, keeper of the lights on Tybee Island, that the Beacon Light, recently lighted on an improved plan by Mr. Lewis, is, in the opinion of the keeper, one and a half times more brilliant than the largest light, although the Beacon Light is composed of but eight lamps, and the larger light of fifteen lamps. We also learn that it is the general opinion among the pilots, that the larger light, unless soon fixed on the same or a similar plan, may deceive the navigators seeking the port of Savannah."

BEACON ON THE WOLF ROCK.

The construction of a beacon on that dangerous rock called the Wolf, situate about seven and a half miles west-southwest of the Land's End of Cornwall, has been completed. It consists of an artificial cone, bearing a mast, having a large ball upon its summit, at an elevation of thirty-six feet above the level of the sea at high water. Spring tides rise at this station 19 feet, and at low water of those tides the rock is uncovered to the height of 15 feet. The bearings and distances of the undermentioned objects from this beacon are as follows, viz:—Longships Lighthouse, NE. northerly $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles; Scilly Lighthouse, W. by N. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. 21 miles; Rundlestone Rock, which covers at half flood, E. by N. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. 7 miles; Seven Stones, centre thereof, NW. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles; Lizard Lighthouses, SE. by E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E. 23 miles. Masters of vessels and others are hereby cautioned and enjoined not to approach this beacon on any consideration, lest their own safety, as well as the security of the structure, should be thereby unnecessarily endangered.

FLOATING DRY DOCK.

Joseph T. Martin has obtained a patent for a new floating dry dock. It is described by the New York Sun, as being so constructed that it may be sunk with ease so deep in the water as to receive upon it ships and steamboats of the largest class, and may then be raised by means of a very simple and expeditious operation, and is left floating with its burden on the surface. It is built in such a manner that its own buoyancy will bear up the heaviest ships. This buoyancy is overcome for the purpose of sinking the dock low enough to receive the vessel by means of end floats, which are filled with water. When this is accomplished, the water is easily discharged from the floats, and the dock instantly rises. The work of building a dock upon this plan has already been commenced.

STATISTICS OF THE FUR TRADE.

In illustration of the article on the "American Fur Trade" in our present number, we here subjoin the product of the fur trade of the Hudson's Bay Company for four years, commencing with Dec. 1834. For this table we are indebted to the valuable work of Hugh Murray, Esq., recently republished in this country by the Harpers, and entitled "An Historical and Descriptive Account of British America," etc.

	Beaver.	Martin.	Otter.	Fox, Silver & Cross.	Other foxes.	Mus- quash.	Bear.	Er- mine	Fish- er.	Lynx.	Mink.	Wolf.	Wolver- rine.	Bad- ger.	Swan.	Rac- coon.
December, 1834.																
York Fort,.....	30,658	21,759	8,778	803	6,977	369,266	4846	386	3386	7,839	10,001	7880	1442	910	7898	4933
Moose Fort,.....	35,734	36,710	9,659	261	1,594	255,369	1537	105	1294	5,882	9,875	4	28	9	20	4
Canada,.....	6,896	1,021	366	2	...	39,457	68	...	16	34	224	...	1	16
Columbia, about	25,000	5,000	3,500	...	300	30,000	1000	...	600	500	5,000	600	100	150	...	200
1835.																
York Fort,.....	98,288	64,490	22,303	1,066	8,871	649,092	7451	491	5266	14,255	25,100	8484	1571	1069	7918	7133
Moose Fort,.....	32,890	24,871	5,948	569	6,319	888,947	2654	...	1247	4,054	7,343	2802	1093	495	4692	92
Canada,.....	17,709	24,780	5,581	235	2,147	161,079	533	...	705	2,407	7,226	20	45	3	11	3
Columbia, about	21,000	6,500	2,500	87	18	31,620	190	...	77	79	740	900	100	200	...	400
1836.																
York Fort,*.....	78,908	61,005	15,487	910	8,704	1,111,646	4127	...	2479	6,990	17,809	3722	1263	698	4703	522
Moose Fort,.....	17,951	36,131	4,727	164	1,521	117,649	498	...	723	3,329	9,064	...	15	...	12	1
Canada,.....	7,112	8,118	1,205	157	153	23,347	217	...	104	33	664	5	28	38
Columbia, about	21,000	8,500	2,500	150	250	20,000	1000	...	500	400	2,500	300	100	200	...	60
1837.																
York Fort,.....	46,063	52,749	8,432	471	1,924	160,996	1715	...	1327	3,762	12,228	307	143	201	12	99
Moose Fort,.....	38,786	85,658	8,744	1,746	21,790	695,624	5656	...	4558	24,639	15,614	6520	2039	547	6391	182
Canada,.....	17,191	46,856	4,390	155	632	97,925	779	...	821	5,666	8,713	7	6	7	9	1
Columbia, about	6,950	14,654	1,300	36	139	27,000	328	...	236	82	1,423	4	21	102
	20,000	9,000	1,500	210	300	18,000	800	...	500	1,500	2,000	500	100	200	...	300
	82,927	156,168	15,934	2,147	22,861	838,549	7563	...	6115	31,887	27,750	7031	2166	754	6600	585

The company also imported beaver-coat to the amount, in the last year, of 304 lbs.; castorum, 278 lbs.; indigloss, 2684 lbs.; sea-horse teeth, 461 lbs.; bed-leathers, 16,641 lbs.; goose and swan quills, 1,259,000; oil, 26 tons.

* Ships not arrived this year.

UNITED STATES TARIFF.

TARIFF OF DUTIES FOR 1840.

Extract from an Act to modify the Act of July 14, 1832, relating to Duties.

Be it Enacted, &c. That from and after the 31st of December, 1833, in all cases where duties are imposed on foreign imports by the act of the 14th of July, 1832, entitled, "An Act to alter and amend the several acts imposing duties on imports," or by any other act, shall exceed 20 per ct. on the value thereof, one tenth part of such excess shall be deducted; from and after the 31st of December, 1835, another tenth part thereof shall be deducted; from and after the 31st of December, 1837, another tenth part thereof shall be deducted; from and after the 31st of December, 1839, another tenth part thereof shall be deducted; and from and after the 31st of December, 1841, one half of the residue of such excess shall be deducted; and from and after the 30th of June, 1842, the other half thereof shall be deducted.

Acetate of lead, 5 cents a lb.
 Acids, muriatic and tartaric, 12½ per ct.
 Adzes, 26 per ct.
 Alcornoque, free.
 Ale See Beer.
 Almonds, and Oil of, free.
 Alum, \$2.50 for 112 lbs.
 Amber, free.
 Amber beads, 15 per ct.
 Ambergris, free.
 Aloes, free.
 Anatomical preparations, free.
 Anchors, 2 cents a lb.
 Angora goat's wool or hair, free.
 Animals, imported for breed, free.
 do not do free.
 Anise seed, and Oil of, free.
 Annotto, free.
 Antimony, regulus of, free.
 Antiquities, all collections of, specially imported, free.
 Do. not do., according to the material.
 Anvils, 2 cents per lb.
 Apparatus, philosophical, specially imported by order, for societies, colleges, schools, etc. free.
 Apparel, wearing, and other personal baggage in actual use, free.
 Apples, pine, free.
 Aquafortis, 12½ per ct.
 Arabic, gum, free.
 Argol, free.
 Arrowroot, free.
 Articles not free, and not subject to any other rates of duty, 15 per ct.
 Articles, all composed wholly, or chiefly of gold, silver, pearl, and precious stones, 12½ per ct.
 Articles, imported for the use of the United States, free.
 Articles, used principally for dyeing, not otherwise specified, free. See Drugs.
 Artificial flowers, 23 per ct.
 Assafoetida, free.
 Ava root, free.
 Axes, same as adzes.

Bacon, 3 cents per lb.
 Baggage. See Apparel.
 Bagging, cotton, ¾ cents a square yard.
 Baizes. See Wool.
 Balsams, 15 per ct.
 Balsam Tolu, free.
 Bandanas. See Silk.
 Barilla, free.
 Bark of cork tree, unmanufactured, free.
 Barley, 15 per ct.
 Baskets, grass or straw, 15 per ct.; wood or osier, 23 per ct.
 Beads, composition, wax, or amber, and all others not otherwise specified, 15 per ct.; of gold, silver, or precious stones, 12½ per ct.
 Beam knives, 26 per ct.
 Beans, vanilla, free.
 Beef, 2 cents per lb.
 Beer, ale, and porter, imported in bottles, 20 cents a gal.; otherwise imported, 15 cents a gal.
 Bed ticking, flax or cotton, 23 per ct.
 Bellows, 23 per ct.
 Bells, 23 per ct.
 Berries, used in dyeing, and juniper, free.
 Bindings, of wool, and worsted, 23 per ct.
 Birds, free.
 Black, ivory and lamp, 15 per ct.
 Black lead pencils, 23 per ct.
 Black lead, unmanufactured, 15 per ct.
 Bladders, free.
 Blankets, woollen. See Wool.
 Blue vitriol, 4 cents per lb.
 Boards and plank, 23 per ct.
 Bobbin wire. See Wire.
 Bole ammoniac, free.
 Bolting cloths, free.
 Bone, whale, not of American fisheries, 12½ per ct.
 Bombazines, free.
 Bonnets, chip, grass, Leghorn or straw; and braids, flats, and plaits, 36 per ct.; wire for. See Wire.
 Books, specially imported, free.
 Books, all printed previous to the year 1775,

- and also all books printed in other languages than the English, except Latin and Greek, 4 cents per vol. [a lb.]
- Do., Latin and Greek when bound, 15 cts.
- Do., do. do., not bound, 13 cents a lb.
- Do., all others when bound, 30 cents a lb.
- Do., do., in sheets or boards, 26 do.
- Do., blank, 26 per ct.
- Boots or bootees, \$1.50 a pair.
- Botany, specimens in, free.
- Bottles. See Glass.
- Borax, free.
- Box boards, paper, 3 cents a lb.
- Boxes, shell or paper, 15 per ct.
- Do., Japan dressing, 23 per ct. [ct.]
- Braces, cotton, 23 per ct.; leather, 26 per
- Bracelets, hair, 15 per ct.
- Brandy, 1st and 2d proof, 53 cents a gal.
- Do. 3d proof, 57 cents a gal.
- Do. 4th proof, 63 cents a gal.
- Brandy, comfits and sweetmeats preserved in, 23 per ct.
- Brass, all manufactures of, not otherwise specified, or of which it is a component material, 23 per ct.
- Brass, in pigs, bars, plates or sheets, 23 per ct.; or old, fit only to be manufactured, free.
- Brass wire, nails, and handles, 23 per ct.
- Brazil paste, free.
- Bricks, 15 per ct.
- Bridles, 26 per ct. Bitts, 23 do.
- Brimstone or sulphur, free.
- Bristles, 3 cents a lb.
- Brooms, of hair or palm leaf, 15 per ct.
- Brown sugar, and syrup of sugar cane in casks, 2½ cents a lb.
- Brushes, of all kinds, 23 per ct.
- Buckram, free.
- Bullion, free.
- Burgundy pitch, free.
- Burlaps, free.
- Burr stones, not manufactured, free.
- Busts, of marble, metal, or plaster, free.
- Butter, 5 cents a lb.
- Buttons, of gold, silver, and precious stones, 12½ per ct.; of iron, steel, pewter, brass, and tin, 23 per ct.
- Cabinet ware, 26 per ct.
- Cabinets of coins, free.
- Cables and cordage, tarred, 4 cents a lb.; untarred, 5 do.
- Cables, made of grass or bark, 5 cents a lb.; of iron, 3 cents a lb.
- Calomel, 15 per ct.
- Camphor, refined, 12 cents a lb.
- Camphor, crude, free.
- Candles, tallow, 5 cents a lb.; spermaceti, 8 do.; wax, 6 do.
- Canella, alba, free.
- Canes, or walking sticks, 23 per ct.
- Cantharides, free.
- Cap wire. See Wire.
- Capers, free.
- Caps, of fur, leather, or wool, 26 per ct. See Hats.
- Caps, for women, 23 per ct.
- Cards, playing, 30 cents a pack; visiting, 15 cents a lb.
- Cards, wool and cotton, 23 per ct.
- Carpets and Carpeting. See Wool and Matting.
- Carpeting of oil cloth, 43 cts. a square yd.
- Carriages, and parts of, 26 per ct.; furniture for, same as adzes.
- Cascarilla, free.
- Casement rods, slit or rolled, 3 cents a lb.
- Cashmere shawls, (real,) 15 per ct.
- Cassia, free.
- Castanas, free.
- Cast iron vessels not otherwise specified, 1½ cents a lb.
- Castings of iron, all other not specified, 1 cent a lb.
- Castor oil, 40 cents a gal.
- Casts, of bronze or plaster, free.
- Caulking mallets, 23 per ct.
- Chains or cables, iron, 3 cents a lb.
- Chairs, 26 per ct.
- Chalk, free.
- Champagne wine. See Wine.
- Charts, specially imported, free.
- Cheese, 9 cents a lb.
- Chemical preparations, 15 per ct.
- China ware, 20 per ct.
- Chip hats and bonnets, 26 per ct.
- Chissels, (socket,) same as adzes.
- Chloride of lime, 15 per ct.
- Chocolate, 4 cents a lb.
- Cider, same as beer.
- Cigars, \$2.50 a 1000.
- Cinnamon, free.
- Citron, 23 per ct.
- Clay, unmanufactured, free.
- Clocks, 23 per ct.
- Cloth, rags of, any kind, free.
- Clothing, ready made, 38 per ct.
- Cloves, and oil of, free.
- Coach laces, 29 per ct.
- Coaches. See Carriages.
- Coal, 6 cents a bushel.
- Coal hods, 23 per ct.
- Cochineal, free.
- Cocoa, cocoa nuts and shells, free.
- Codfish, dry, \$1.00 a quintal.
- Coffee, free.
- Coffee mills, 23 per ct.
- Coculus Indicus, free.
- Cologne water, 15 per ct.
- Colombo root, free.
- Colors, water, free.
- Combs, ivory, horn and shell, 15 per ct.; iron, lead, copper and brass, 23 do.; wood, 26 do.
- Comfits and sweetmeats of all kinds preserved in sugar or brandy, 23 per ct.
- Coney, wool of, free.
- Copper, bars, cakes, pig, for sheathing

- ships, free; braziers, 15 per ct.; copper vessels, and all manufactures of copper not otherwise specified, 23 per ct.
- Copperas, \$2,00 per 112 lbs.
- Coral, free.
- Cordage. See Cables.
- Cordials, 53 cents a gallon.
- Coriander seed, free.
- Corks, 12 cents a lb.; bark, free.
- Corrosive sublimate, 15 per ct.
- Cotton, 3 cents a lb.
- Cotten bagging, $3\frac{1}{4}$ cents a square yard.
- Cotton, all manufactures of, or of which cotton shall be a component part, 23 per ct.; excepting cotton twist, yarn, and thread, (which see.) Provided, that all manufactures of cotton, or of which cotton shall be a component part, not dyed, colored, printed, or stained, not exceeding in value 30 cents a square yard, shall be valued at 30 cents a square yard, and, if dyed, colored, printed, or stained, in whole or in part, not exceeding in value 35 cents a square yard, shall be valued at 35 cents a square yard. Nankeens imported direct from China, 20 per ct.
- Cotton, yarn, twist, and thread, unbleached and uncolored, 23 per ct. All unbleached and uncolored cotton yarn, twist, and thread, the original cost of which shall be less than 60 cents a lb., shall be deemed and taken to have cost 60 cents a lb., and shall be charged with duty accordingly, 23 per ct.
- Cotton yarn, twist, or thread, bleached or colored, 23 per ct. All bleached or colored cotton yarn, twist, or thread, the original cost of which shall be less than 75 cents a lb., shall be deemed and taken to have cost 75 cents a lb., and be charged accordingly, 23 per ct.
- Crapes, silk. See Silk.
- Cummin seed, free.
- Currants, free.
- Cutting knives, same as adzes.
- Cutlery, 23 per ct.
- Dates, free.
- Demijohns, 25 cents each.
- Diamonds, 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ per ct.
- Diaper, linen and hemp, free.
- Down, of all kinds, 15 per ct.
- Drawings and paintings, free.
- Drawing knives, same as adzes.
- Duck, sail, 15 per ct.
- Drugs, dyeing, not otherwise specified, free, except bichromate of potash, prussiate of potash, chromate of potash, nitrate of lead, aqua fortis, and tartaric acid.
- Drugs, medicinal, not otherwise specified, free.
- Dye woods, free.
- Earth, brown, red, blue, and yellow, being considered as ochre, 1 cent a lb.; in oil, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents.
- Earthen ware, 20 per ct.
- Elephant's teeth. See Ivory
- Embroidery done with a needle with thread of gold or silver, 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ per ct.
- Emery, 15 per ct.
- Engravings, free.
- Epaulettes of gold or silver, free.
- Epsom salts, 4 cents a lb.
- Fans, 23 per ct.
- Feathers, ornamental, 23 per ct; bed, 15 do.
- Felts, or hat bodies made wholly or in part of wool, 18 cents each.
- Fiddles, 26 per ct.
- Figs and Filberts, free.
- Filtering stones, free.
- Firearms not enumerated, 26 per ct.
- Fish, foreign caught, \$1 per quintal, Mackerel, \$1,50 per bbl.; Salmon, \$2 per bbl.; all other pickled, \$1 do. Dry or smoked, \$1 per 112 lbs.; pickled in kegs, in proportion to the bbl.
- Flannels, 16 cents per square yard. See Wool.
- Flax, unmanufactured, free.
- Flax and hemp, manufactures of, not otherwise specified, except yarn, cordage tarred or untarred, ticklenburgs, osnaburgs, and burlaps, 23 per ct.
- Flints, free.
- Floor cloths, patent, stamped, printed or painted, 43 cents per square yard.
- Flour, wheat, 50 cents per cwt.
- Flowers, artificial, 23 per ct.; Chamomile, free.
- Fossil and crude mineral salt, 15 per ct.
- Frames or sticks for umbrellas and parasols, 23 per ct.
- Frankincense, free.
- Furs, dressed, 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ per ct.; undressed, free.
- Fur hats. See Hats.
- Gamboge, free.
- Gilt ware, 23 per ct.
- Gin, 1st proof, 57; 2d, 60; 3d, 63; 4th, 67; 5th, 75; above 5th, 90 cts. per gal.
- Ginger, free.
- Glass, window, not above 8 by 10 inches, \$3 per 100 square feet; not above 10 by 12, \$3,50 per do.; above 10 by 12, \$4 per do.; window glass imported in plates uncut is charged with the highest rates of duty; apothecaries' vials and bottles exceeding the capacity of 6 oz. and not above 16 oz. each, \$2,25 per gross; perfumery and fancy vials and bottles not above the capacity of 4 oz. each, \$2,50 per gross; above 4 oz. and not above 16 oz. each, \$3,25 per gross.
- Do. bottles, black, not above 1 quart each, \$2 per gross; above 1 quart, \$2,50; demijohns, 25 cents each.
- Do. all wares of cut glass not specified, 3 cents a lb. and 30 per ct. ad valorem.
- Do. all other articles of glass not specified, 2 cents a lb. and 20 per ct. ad valorem.

- Glauber salts, 2 cents a lb.
 Gloves, woollen and worsted, 23 per ct.
 Glue, 5 cents a lb.
 Goat's hair, wool, or raw skins, free.
 Gold dust and coin, free.
 Grapes, free.
 Grindstones, free.
 Gum, arabic and senegal, free.
 Hair, human, not made up for head dresses, 15 per ct.
 Hair, human, manufactured for head ornaments, 23 per ct. [free.
 Hair, unmanufactured, and hair pencils, 23 per ct.
 Hair cloth and seating, 15 per ct.
 Hair powder, 15 per ct.
 Hammers, blacksmiths, $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents a lb.; all others, 23 per ct.
 Hams, 3 cents a lb.
 Harlem oil and hartshorn, free.
 Harness, 26 per ct.; furniture for, same as adzes.
 Hatchets, same as adzes.
 Hats, fur, leather and wool, 26 per ct.; plush, free.
 Hats or Bonnets. See Bonnets.
 Head dresses, ornaments for, 23 per ct.
 Hemp, unmanufactured, \$40 a ton; all manufactures of, not otherwise specified, 23 per ct.
 Henbane, free.
 Hides, raw, free.
 Hoes, 23 per ct.
 Honey, free.
 Hooks, reaping, iron or steel, same as adzes.
 Horn plates, for lanterns, free.
 Horns, ox, other horns and tips, free.
 Hosiery, woollen and worsted, 23 per ct.; cotton, 23 per ct.; silk. See Silk.
 Implements of trade, of persons arriving in the United States, free.
 India rubber, free.
 Indigo, 15 per ct.
 Ink and ink powder, free.
 Ipecacuanha, free.
 Iris or orris root, free.
 Iron, anvils and anchors and parts of, 2 cents a lb.; in bars or bolts not manufactured in whole or in part by rolling, 90 cents per 112 lbs.
 Do. bar or bolt iron made wholly or in part by rolling, \$30 a ton. Provided, that all iron in slabs, blooms, and loops, or other form, less finished than iron in bars or bolts, and more advanced than pig iron, except castings, shall be rated as iron in bars or bolts, and pay duty accordingly.
 Do. cables or chains, or parts of, 3 cts. a lb.
 Do. cannon, 23 per ct.
 Do. cast iron vessels not otherwise specified, 14 cents a lb.
 Do. all other castings of iron, not otherwise specified, 1 cent a lb.
 Do. mill cranks and mill irons, of wrought iron, 4 cents a lb.
 Do. round iron or braziers' rods of 3.16 to 8.16 of an inch diameter inclusive, nail or spike rods, nail plates, slit, rolled or hammered, and iron in sheets, hoop iron, and iron slit rolled, or hammered for band iron, scroll iron, or casement rods, 3 cts. a lb.
 Do. square wire used in the manufacture of stretchers for umbrellas, 12 per ct.
 Do. in pigs, 50 cents per 112 lbs.
 Do. old iron, \$12.50 a ton.
 Do. wire. See Wire.
 Do. all manufactures of, not otherwise specified, or of which iron is a component material, 23 per ct.
 Do. all articles of which any particular kind of iron constitutes the whole or the greater part of the weight, and not otherwise specified, pay the same duty per lb. as such kind of iron, these rates of duty not to be less than 23 per ct.
 Isinglass, free.
 Ivory, unmanufactured, free; manufactures of, free, except combs.
 Japanned wares of all kinds, 23 per ct.
 Jewelry, gold, set or not set, $12\frac{1}{2}$ per ct. false or gilt, 23 per ct.
 Juniper berries, and oil of, free.
 Junk and Oakum, free.
 Kermes and kelp, free.
 Knobs, iron, brass, or steel, or copper, 23 per ct.
 Knitting needles, 23 per ct.
 Lac dye, free.
 Lace, of thread, silk, gold, or silver, $12\frac{1}{2}$ per ct.
 Lampblack, 15 per ct.
 Lamps, excepting glass, 23 per ct.
 Lard, 3 cents a lb.
 Laudanum, free.
 Lead, old and scrap, 2 cents a lb.; pigs, bars, or sheet, 3 cents a lb.; red and white, 5 cents do.
 Do. manufactures of, not otherwise specified, 15 per ct.
 Leather and all manufactures of, not otherwise specified, 26 per ct.
 Leghorn hats and bonnets. See Bonnets.
 Lemons and Limes, free.
 Lime, free.
 Linens, bleached and unbleached, free; (by decision, all linens of flaxen cloth, except dyed, stained, and printed and small articles.)
 Lines, fishing, 23 per ct.
 Liquors or cordials, 53 cents per gal.
 Loaf sugar, 12 cents a lb.
 Locks, 23 per ct.
 Logwood, free.
 Looking glasses, not silvered, 2 cents a lb. and 20 per ct. ad val.; silvered, 20 per ct.; frames of gilt on wood, 26 per ct.
 Lump sugar, 10 cents a lb.
 Mace, free.

- Machinery of iron and brass, 23 per ct.**
Madder and madder root, free.
Mahogany wood, free.
Malt, free.
Manganese, 15 per ct.
Manna, free.
Manufactured tobacco, other than snuff and cigars, 10 cents a lb.
Manufactures of the United States and its Territories, free.
Maps, specially imported, free.
Marble, unmanufactured, and busts of, free; manufactures of, 26 per ct.
Materials for composing dyes, not otherwise enumerated, free.
Matts of sheep skin, 15 per ct.
Matting, floor, made of flags or other materials, 5 per ct.
Medical preparations of anatomy, free.
Mits, woollen or worsted, 23 per ct.
Mercury or quicksilver, free.
Mill cranks and mill irons of wrought iron, 4 cents a lb.; mill saws, \$1 each.
Millinery of all kinds, 23 per ct.
Mineralogy, specimens in, free.
Mohair, manufactured, 15 per ct.
Molasses, 5 cents a gallon.
Morocco skins, 26 per ct.
Mother of Pearl, free.
Muffs and Tippets, 23 per ct.
Musk, free.
Muskets, \$1.50 a stand.
Musical instruments of brass or copper, 23 per ct.; of wood, 26 per ct.
Mustard, 15 per ct.
Nail rods. See Iron.
Nails, iron, cut or wrought, 5 cents a lb.; brass, 23 per ct.; copper, 4 cents a lb.
Nankeens, 20 per ct.
Natural history, specimens in, free.
Needles, free.
Nitrate of potash, 3 cents a lb.
Nitrate of lead, 12½ per ct.
Noyeau, 53 cents a gallon.
Nuts used in dyeing, free.
Nutmegs, free.
Nuts, of all kinds, free.
Nux vomica, free.
Oakum and junk, free.
Oats, 10 cents a bushel.
Ochre. See Earths.
Oil cloths of all kinds, other than those usually denominated patent floor-cloths, 12½ cents a square yard.
Oil of vitriol, 3 cents a lb.
Oil, sperm, 25, whale and other not sperm, of foreign fisheries, 15 cents a gal.; oil, olive, in casks, 20 cents a gal.; Juniper do. free; linseed, 25 cents a gal.
Olives, free.
Onions, free.
Opium, free.
Oranges, free.
Osnaburga, free.
Packthread, 5 cents a lb.
Paint brushes, 23 per ct.
Paintings, free.
Paints, red and white lead dry or ground in oil, 5 cents a lb.
Paper, antiquarian, demy, drawing, foolscap imperial, medium, pot, pith, royal, and writing, 17 cts. a lb.; bank post, folio and quarto post of all kinds, 20 do.; blotting, cartridge, copying, fancy colored, fuller's boards, glass, gold, leaf, paper makers' boards, morocco, pasteboards, pressing do., sand or tissue, 15 do.; binders' boards, box boards, mill boards, sheathing or wrapping, 3 do.
Paper hangings, 32 per ct.
Parasols of all kinds, and frames for, 23 per ct.
Parchment, 23 per ct.
Paste, imitations of precious stones, 15 per ct.
Pastel, free.
Pencils, black lead, 23 per ct.; hair do. free.
Penknives. See Cutlery.
Pens of metal, 23 per ct.
Pepper, black, free; Cayenne, 15 cents a lb.
Perfumery, 15 per ct.
Perry, 53 cents a gallon.
Persons arriving in the United States, their wearing apparel, tools and implements of trade, free.
Peruvian bark, free.
Pewter, all manufactures of, not otherwise specified, 23 per ct.
Piano fortes, 26 per ct.
Pickles, 15 per ct.
Pimento, free.
Pine apples, free.
Pins, free.
Pipes, clay, for smoking, free.
Pistols, 26 per ct.
Plaids, Scotch, free.
Plains and paddings. See Wool.
Plaster, busts of, free. Plaster of Paris, free.
Plated wares of all kinds, 23 per ct.
Platina, free.
Plane irons, 23 per ct.
Planks, 23 per ct.
Plats for hats or bonnets. See Bonnets.
Ploughs, 23 per ct.
Pocket books, leather, 26 per ct.
Porcelain, 20 per ct.
Porter. See Beer.
Potash, bichromate of, prussiate of, chromate of, 12½ per cent.
Potatoes, 10 cents a bushel.
Powder, gun, 8 cents a lb.
Precious stones, set or not, and all articles composed wholly or chiefly of, 13½ per ct.; glass imitation of, 2 cents a lb. and 20 per ct. ad valorem; other imitations of, 15 per ct.
Preserves. See Comfits.
Printing types, 23 per ct.

Prunes, free.	et.; all other, free, except sewing silk, which is do.
Prussiate of potash, 12½ per ct.	Silk, raw, 12½ per ct.
Quadrants, 23 per ct.	Skins, undressed, free.
Quicksilver, free.	Skins, dressed with alum, 26 per ct.
Quills, prepared, 15 per ct.; unprepared, free.	Slates of all kinds, 23 per ct.
Rags of cloth, free.	Sledges, blacksmith's, 2½ cents a lb.
Railroads, iron for, if actually employed for the purpose, there is a drawback equivalent to the duty.	Slippers, silk, 30, leather, 25, and childrer's do., 15 cents a pair.
Raisons of all kinds, free.	Snuff, 12 cents a lb.
Rattans, unmanufactured, free	Soap, 4 cents a lb.; perfumed, 15 per ct.
Ra silk, 12½ per ct.	Soda, sal., 15 per ct.
Razors, 23 per ct.	Spades, iron or steel, same as adzes.
Reaping hooks, same as adzes.	Spectacles, gold or silver mounted, 12½; shell, 15; metal, 23 per ct.
Red lead, 5 cents a lb.	Spikes, 4 cents a lb.
Reeds, unmanufactured, free.	Spoons, not silver, 23 per ct.
Rhubarb, free.	Spirits distilled from grain, 1st proof, 57; 2d, 60; 3d, 63; 4th, 67; 5th, 75; above 5th, 90 cents a gallon.
Ribbon supporters, wire or cannetille 12 cents a lb.	Spirits, distilled from other materials than grain, 1st and 2d proof, 53; 3d, 57; 4th, 63; 5th, 72; above 5th, 85 cents a gal
Rice, free.	Sponges, free.
Rifles, \$2.50 each.	Squares of iron or steel, same as adzes
Rochelle salts, 15 per ct.	Starch, free.
Roots, bulbous, free.	Steel, \$1.50 for 112 lbs.; all manufactures of, not otherwise specified, 23 per ct
Ropes, grass or bark, 5 cents a lb.	Steelyards, same as adzes.
Rotten stone, free.	Strings for musical instruments, free
Rum, 1st and 2d proof, 53; 3d, 57; 4th, 63 cents per gallon.	Stone, load, 23 per ct.
Saddlery, plated, brass, and polished steel, same as adzes; common tinned and japanned of all descriptions, 10 per ct.	Stoneware, 20 per ct.
Saddles, 26 per ct.	Stones, precious, 12½ per ct.
Saffron, free.	Stuff goods, worsted, free.
Sago, free.	Sugar, brown, and syrup of sugar cane, in casks, 24 cents a lb.; white clayed, 3 1.3 do.; lump, 10 do.; loaf and candy, 12 do.
Sail duck, 15 per ct.	Sugar of lead, 5 cents a lb.
Salt, 10 cents for 56 lbs.	Sulphur or brimstone, free.
Saltpetre, crude, free; refined, 3 cents a lb.	Sulphuric acid, 3 cents a lb.
Salts, Rochelle, 15 per ct.; glauber, 2 cents a lb.	Sumach, free.
Sandal wood, free.	Sweetmeats preserved in sugar or orandy, 23 per ct.
Sarsaparilla, free.	Swords and swordblades, 26 per ct.
Saws, mill, \$1 each; all other, 23 per ct.	Table knives and forks, 23 per ct.
Scale beams, same as adzes.	Tacks, brads, and sprigs, not exceeding 16 oz. to the 1000, 5 cents a 1000; exceeding 16 oz., 5 cents a lb.
Screws, wood, (so called, but of iron,) same as adzes.	Tallow, 1 cent a lb.
Sculpture, specimens of, specially imported, free.	Tamarinds, free.
Scythes, same as adzes.	Tapioca, free.
Segars, \$2.50 for 1000.	Tartar emetic, 15 per ct.; crude, free.
Senna, free.	Teas, of all kinds imported from China or other places east of the Cape of Good Hope, and in vessels of the United States, free; Teas, of all kinds imported from places this side of the Cape of Good Hope, or in vessels other than those of the United States, 10 cents a lb.
Shawls, camel's hair, 15 per ct.	Thread, sewing, floss, cotton, and shoe, 23 per ct.; pack, 5 cents a lb.
Sheeting, Russia, free.	Ticklenburgs, free.
Sheetings. See Cotton.	Tiles, paving, 15 per ct.
Shoes, of silk, 30 cents a pair; nankeen, prunella stuff, and leather, 25 do.; for children, 15 do.	Tin, in foil, plates, sheet, bar, pigs, or
Shellac, free.	
Shells, tortoise, free	
Shovels, of iron or steel, same as adzes.	
Shovels and tongs, 23 per ct.	
Sickles, same as adzes.	
Silk, all manufactures of, or of which silk shall be a component part, coming from beyond the Cape of Good Hope, 10 per	

blocks, free; black in sheets as iron in sheets.
 Tin, all manufactures of, or of which tin is a component material, not otherwise specified, 23 per ct.
 Tobacco, manufactured, other than snuff and cigars, 10 cents a lb.; leaf or unmanufactured, 15 do.
 Tongues and sounds, free.
 Tortoise shell, free.
 Toys, paper, 15; brass, iron, steel, tin, lead, pewter, or copper, 23; wood, 26 per ct.
 Turmeric, free.
 Turtles, free.
 Twine, tarred, 4; untarred, 5 cents a lb.
 Twist, cotton. See cotton, manufactures of.
 Types, printing, 23 per ct.
 Umbrellas, of whatever material, 23 per ct.
 Frames or sticks for, 23 per ct.
 Vanilla beans, free.
 Varnishes, free.
 Vegetables, used for dyeing and in composing dyes, not otherwise specified, free; others, 15 per ct.
 Veils, lace, 12½ per ct.
 Vellum, 23 per ct.
 Vessels, copper, 23 per ct.; cast iron, not otherwise specified, 1½ cents a lb.
 Vices and screws of iron, called wood screws, same as adzes.
 Vinegar, 8 cents a gallon.
 Vitriol, blue, 4 cents a lb.
 Wafers, 23 per ct.
 Walking sticks or canes, 23 per ct.
 Watches, and parts of, 12½ per ct.
 Water colors, free.
 Wax, bees', free.
 Wearing apparel in actual use of persons arriving in the United States, free.
 Webbing, worsted, 38; silk, free; all other kinds, 23 per ct.
 Weld, free.
 Whalebone, product of foreign fisheries, 12½ per ct.
 Wheat, 25 cents a bushel; flour, 50 cents a cwt.
 Whips, 26 per ct.
 Whetstones, free.
 White lead, dry or ground in oil, 5 cts. a lb.
 Window glass. See Glass.
 Wine lees, free.
 Wines, of France, in casks, red, 3 cents, and white, 5 cents a gallon; in bottles, 11 cents a gallon. Madeira and Sherry,

in casks, cases, or bottles, 25 cents a gallon; wines of France, Germany, Spain, and Mediterranean, not specially enumerated, in casks, 7½ cents a gallon; red wines of Spain and Austria, in casks, 5 cents a gallon. Wines of all countries in bottles or cases, unless specially enumerated, and all wines not enumerated, 15 cents a gallon.
 Wire, silver or plated, 5 per ct.; cap or bonnet, covered with silk, cotton or flaxen yarn or thread, manufactured abroad, 12 cents a lb.; iron or steel, exceeding No. 14, 9 cents a lb.; not exceeding No. 14, 5 cents a lb.
 Woad, free.
 Wood, unmanufactured, and for dyeing, free; manufactures of wood, unless otherwise specified, 23 per ct.
 Wool, Angora goats' or camels', free.
 Wool, unmanufactured, the value whereof at the place of exportation not above 8 cents a lb., free; exceeding 8 cents a lb., 4 cents a lb., and 40 per ct. ad valorem. Wool imported on skins is estimated, as to weight and value, as other wool.
 Wool, manufactures of, all milled and full-
 ed cloth, known by the name of plain kerseys or Kendall cottons, of which wool is the only material, 38 per ct.; worsted stuff goods, shawls, and other manufactures of silk and worsted, free; worsted yarn, 20 per ct.; woollen yarn, 4 cents a lb., and 50 per ct. ad valorem; mits, gloves, bindings, blankets, hosiery, carpets and carpetings, 23 per ct., except Brussels, Wilton, and treble ingrained carpeting, which is at 63 cents a square yard; all other ingrained and Venetian carpeting, 35 cents a square yard, and except blankets the value whereof at the place of exportation shall not exceed 75 cents each, the duty levied upon which is 5 per ct.; flannels, bockings, and baizes, 16 cents a square yard; coach laces, 29 per ct.; merino shawls, made of wool, all other manufactures of wool, or of which wool is a component part, and on ready made clothing, 38 per ct.
 Yams, free.
 Yarn, cotton. See manufactures of cotton; worsted, 20 per ct.; woollen, 4 cents a lb., and 50 per ct. ad valorem.
 Zinc, unmanufactured, free; in sheets or nails, free.

The following allowances are made by law for drafts on articles subject to duty by weight, by Act of 2d of March, 1799, Section 58:

On any quantity of 1 cwt.....	1 pound.
On any quantity above 1 cwt. and not exceeding 2 cwt.....	2 do
On any quantity above 2 cwt. and not exceeding 3 cwt.....	3 do
On any quantity above 3 cwt. and not exceeding 10 cwt.....	4 do
On any quantity above 10 cwt. and not exceeding 18 cwt.....	7 do
On any quantity above 18 cwt.....	9 do

A Table showing the per cent. of duty upon the import value or manufactured cost of certain articles in general use, under each tariff, since the organization of the government, and extended to 1842.

Kind of Goods.		Cost pr. sq. yard.	Years in which different duties were laid from 1789 to 1833.										Years of reduction under act of 1833.				
			1789	1790	1794	1804	1812	1816	1824	1828	1832	1833	1835	1837	1839	1841	1842
Cotton	Sheetings, &c.	cts. 6	pr. ct. 5	7½	12½	15	27½	114	125	145	125	112½	100	87½	75	47½	20
	Shirtings, ..	10	5 7½	12½	15	27½	62	75	87	75	69½	64	58½	53	36½	20	
	Shirtings, .. &c.	20	5 7½	12½	15	27½	31	37	43	37½	35½	34	32½	30½	25½	20	
	Checks, ...	35	5 7½	12½	15	27½	31	37	25	25	24½	24	23½	23	21½	20	
	Calicoes, ...	8	5 7½	12½	15	27½	78	92	109	109	100	92	83	74	47	20	
	Chintzes, ...	12	5 7½	12½	15	27½	50	60	72	72	66	61	56	51	35½	20	
	Prints, &c.	20	5 7½	12½	15	27½	31	37	43	43	40½	38	36	34	27	20	
Woollen	Flannels, ...	35	5 7½	12½	15	27½	31	37	25	25	24½	24	23½	23	21½	20	
	Baizes, ...	15	5 7½	10	15	27½	25	33½	150	106	97½	89	80½	72	46	20	
	Cloths, ...	25	5 7½	10	15	27½	25	33½	90	64	60	56	52	48	34	20	
	Kerseymeres	45	5 7½	10	15	27½	25	33½	50	35½	33½	32	32½	29	24½	20	
	&c.	\$1 25	5 7½	10	15	27½	25	33½	90	50	47	44	41	38	27	20	
	&c.	2 25	5 7½	10	15	27½	25	33½	50	50	47	44	41	38	27	20	
	&c.	3 00	5 7½	10	15	27½	25	33½	60	50	47	44	41	38	27	20	
	&c.	4 00	5 7½	10	15	27½	25	33½	45	50	47	44	41	38	27	20	

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS UNDER EACH TARIFF FROM 1816 TO 1838.

The following table was recently introduced, in the course of a speech, on the floor of congress. It shows the aggregate exports and imports of the country under each tariff,—also, the aggregate excess of imports consumed over the aggregate exports of domestic products for each period, from 1816 to 1838, inclusive, and of gold and silver, from 1828 to 1838 also.

Under what Tariff.	Time inclusive.	Aggregate imports.	Aggregate exports.	Excess of imports over exports.	GOLD AND SILVER.		Excess of imports.
					Ag. imports.	Ag. exp'ts.	
Tariff of	1816 1817 to 1824	514,102,563	436,197,398	77,905,165			
	1824 1825 " 1828	247,184,036	229,591,845	17,592,191	28,672,602	28,110,515	562,087
	1828 1829 " 1832	274,470,881	239,576,749	34,894,132	28,773,025	20,837,113	7,935,912
	1832 1833 " 1836	489,129,019	359,457,622	129,671,397	51,514,328	14,723,228	36,791,100
	* 1833 1837 " 1838	220,399,059	191,598,235	28,800,824	28,263,530	8,200,777	20,062,753
	Tot. yr's 22	1,745,285,558	1,456,421,849	288,863,709	137,223,485	71,971,633	65,351,852

* Compromise of.

TERMS OF CREDIT.

When the amount of duties does not exceed \$200, by one vessel, and by one person or firm, they must be paid in cash without discount. When they exceed \$200, (except on woollens,) a credit is allowed of three and six months, in equal instalments, and secured by bonds. Or, at the option of the importer, if the cash is paid at the time of entry for duties thus entitled to a credit, an allowance of discount will be made at the rate of four per cent. per annum upon an average of time.

Upon the duties upon wool, and upon all manufactures of which wool is a component part, no credit nor discount is allowed; but six per cent. interest is charged from the date of importation until the payment, which cannot be deferred beyond three and six months, one moiety at each period; in which case the goods must remain in the PUBLIC STORES, under bond, for the amount of the duties.

BANK STATISTICS.

BANK OF ENGLAND RETURNS.

A Table, showing the circulation of the Bank of England at different dates, between October, 1833, and April, 1840, compiled from the Bankers' Circular.

<i>Date.</i>	<i>Circulation.</i>	<i>Deposits.</i>	<i>Securities.</i>	<i>Bullion.</i>
1833.	£	£	£	£
October.....	19,800,000	13,000,000	24,200,000	10,900,000
1834.				
January.....7	18,216,000	13,101,000	23,576,000	9,948,000
February.....4	18,377,000	14,086,000	24,762,000	9,954,000
March.....4	18,700,000	14,418,000	25,547,000	9,829,000
April.....1	19,097,000	14,011,000	25,970,000	9,431,000
May.....6	18,978,000	14,081,000	26,691,000	8,884,000
June.....3	18,922,000	14,539,000	27,312,000	8,645,000
July.....1	18,895,000	15,096,000	27,593,000	8,659,000
".....29	19,110,000	15,675,000	28,502,000	8,598,000
August.....26	19,147,000	15,384,000	28,679,000	8,272,000
September.....23	19,126,000	14,754,000	28,691,000	7,695,000
October.....21	18,914,000	13,514,000	27,840,000	7,123,000
November.....18	18,694,000	12,669,000	27,138,000	6,781,000
December.....16	18,304,000	12,256,000	26,362,000	6,720,000
1835.				
January.....15	18,012,000	12,585,000	26,390,000	6,741,000
February.....12	18,099,000	12,535,000	26,482,000	6,693,000
March.....12	18,311,000	12,281,000	26,657,000	6,536,000
April.....9	18,591,000	11,289,000	26,228,000	6,329,000
May.....7	18,542,000	10,726,000	25,764,000	6,197,000
June.....4	18,460,000	10,568,000	25,562,000	6,150,000
July.....2	18,315,000	10,954,000	25,678,000	6,219,000
".....28	18,322,000	11,561,000	26,244,000	6,283,000
August.....25	18,340,000	12,308,000	26,964,000	6,326,000
September.....22	18,240,000	13,230,000	27,889,000	6,261,000
October.....20	17,930,000	14,227,000	28,661,000	6,186,000
November.....23	17,549,000	16,180,000	30,069,000	6,305,000
December.....17	17,321,000	17,729,000	31,048,000	6,626,000
1836.				
January.....4	17,262,000	19,169,000	31,954,000	7,076,000
February.....11	17,427,000	18,366,000	31,022,000	7,741,000
March.....10	17,739,000	16,966,000	29,806,000	7,701,000
April.....5	18,063,000	14,751,000	27,927,000	7,801,000
May.....3	18,154,000	13,747,000	27,042,000	7,782,000
".....31	18,051,000	13,273,000	26,534,000	7,663,000
June.....28	17,899,000	13,810,000	27,153,000	7,362,000
July.....26	17,940,000	14,495,000	28,315,000	6,926,000
August.....24	18,061,000	14,796,000	29,345,000	6,325,000
September.....21	18,147,000	14,118,000	29,400,000	5,719,000
October.....19	17,936,000	13,324,000	28,845,000	5,257,000
November.....17	17,543,000	12,682,000	28,134,000	4,933,000
December.....15	17,361,000	13,330,000	28,971,000	4,545,000
1837.				
January.....12	17,422,000	14,354,000	30,365,000	4,287,000
February.....10	17,868,000	14,230,000	31,085,000	4,032,000
March.....10	18,178,000	13,260,000	30,579,000	4,048,000
April.....6	18,432,000	11,192,000	28,843,000	4,071,000
May.....4	18,480,000	10,472,000	28,017,000	4,190,000
June.....1	18,419,000	10,422,000	27,572,000	4,423,000

BANK OF ENGLAND RETURNS.—CONTINUED.

Date	Circulation.	Deposits.	Securities.	Bullion.
1837.	£	£	£	£
June	29 18,202,000	10,424,000	26,932,000	4,750,000
July	28 18,261,000	10,672,000	26,727,000	5,226,000
August	24 18,462,000	11,005,000	26,717,000	5,754,000
September	22 18,814,000	11,093,000	26,605,000	6,303,000
October	20 18,716,000	10,501,000	25,316,000	6,856,000
November	16 18,344,000	10,242,000	23,985,000	7,432,000
December	14 17,998,000	10,195,000	22,727,000	8,172,000
1838.				
January	9 17,900,000	10,992,000	22,606,000	8,895,000
February	6 18,206,000	11,266,000	22,569,000	9,543,000
March	6 18,600,000	11,535,000	22,792,000	10,015,000
April	3 18,987,000	11,262,000	23,838,000	10,126,000
May	1 19,084,000	11,006,000	22,768,000	10,002,000
"	29 19,018,000	10,786,000	22,648,000	9,806,000
June	26 19,047,000	10,426,000	22,354,000	9,722,000
July	24 19,286,000	10,324,000	22,601,000	9,749,000
August	21 19,481,000	10,298,000	22,747,000	9,746,000
September	18 19,665,000	10,040,000	22,846,000	9,615,000
October	16 19,359,000	9,327,000	22,015,000	9,437,000
November	13 18,900,000	8,949,000	21,171,000	9,339,000
December	11 18,469,000	9,033,000	20,707,000	9,362,000
1839.				
January	8 18,201,000	10,315,000	21,680,000	9,336,000
February	5 18,252,000	10,269,000	22,157,000	8,919,000
March	5 18,298,000	9,950,000	22,767,000	8,106,000
April	2 18,371,000	8,998,000	22,987,000	7,073,000
"	30 18,350,000	8,107,000	23,112,000	6,023,000
May	28 18,214,000	7,814,000	23,543,000	5,119,000
June	25 18,101,000	7,567,000	23,934,000	4,344,000
July	23 18,049,000	7,955,000	24,905,000	3,785,000
August	20 17,969,000	8,029,000	25,588,000	3,265,000
September	17 17,960,000	7,781,000	25,936,000	2,816,000
October	15 17,612,000	6,734,000	24,939,000	2,522,000
November	12 17,235,000	6,132,000	23,873,000	2,545,000
December	10 16,732,000	5,952,000	22,764,000	2,887,000
1840.				
January	7 16,366,000	7,136,000	22,913,000	3,454,000
February	4 16,511,000	7,570,000	22,981,000	3,964,000
March	3 16,678,000	7,896,000	23,223,000	4,271,000
"	31 16,818,000	7,704,000	23,113,000	4,360,000
April	28 16,831,000	7,296,000	22,722,000	4,318,000

THE BANKS OF RHODE ISLAND.

Statement of the situation of the Banks in Rhode Island, on Monday, July 6, 1840, as the same appears from the returns made to the Bank Commissioners.

LIABILITIES.		RESOURCES.	
Capital stock	\$9,959,825 00	Loans and discounts,	\$11,686,297 99
Bills in circulation,	1,395,130 00	Specie in bank,	332,591 64
Balances due other banks,	435,596 04	Bills of other banks,	271,485 00
Nett profits on hand,	403,876 27	Balances due from other b'ks,	750,177 42
Dividends unpaid,	74,234 36	Stock in own bank,	165,173 95
Deposits on hand,	492,943 99	Stock, Real Estate, and	
Deposits not on interest,	760,524 93	other property,	313,404 62
Total am't of liabilities,	\$13,519,130 59	Total am't of resources,	\$13,519,130 59

STATEMENT OF BANKS IN THE UNITED STATES.

The whole number of banks in the country at the present time, is 901, including 179 branches. In the column for 1840, of the annexed table, 61 banks and 40 branches are estimated, for lack of fresh returns. In 1834, 5, 6 and 7, more or less banks or branches were estimated, for the same reason. For 1839 and 1839, the returns appear to be complete. The estimated banks for 1840 are about one-ninth of the whole number, and comprise about one-tenth of the banking capital. The variation from fact cannot be material; as the estimates are based upon the returns of the previous year.

Comparative view of the condition of all the banks in the United States, near the commencement of each year, from 1834 to 1840, inclusive.

	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Whole No. of banks and branches in operation,.....	506	704	713	788	829	840	901
Capital paid in,.....	\$200,005,944	\$231,250,337	\$251,875,292	\$290,772,091	\$317,636,778	\$327,132,512	\$358,442,692
Loans and discounts,.....	324,119,499	365,163,334	457,506,080	525,115,702	485,631,687	492,278,015	462,896,523
Stocks,.....	6,113,195	9,210,579	11,709,319	12,407,112	33,908,604	36,128,464	42,411,750
Real estate,.....	10,850,090	11,140,167	14,194,375	19,064,451	19,075,731	16,607,832	29,181,919
Other investments,.....	1,723,547	4,642,224	9,975,226	10,423,630	24,194,117	28,332,248	24,592,380
Due from other banks,.....	27,329,645	40,084,038	51,876,955	59,663,910	58,195,153	52,898,357	41,140,184
Notes of other banks on hand,.....	22,154,919	21,086,301	32,115,138	36,533,527	24,964,257	27,372,966	20,797,892
Specie funds,.....	26,641,753	3,061,819	4,800,076	5,366,500	904,006	3,612,567	3,623,874
Specie,.....	43,937,625	40,019,594	40,019,594	37,915,340	33,184,112	45,132,673	33,105,155
Circulation,.....	94,839,570	103,692,495	140,301,038	149,185,890	116,138,910	135,170,995	106,968,572
Deposits,.....	75,666,986	83,081,365	115,104,440	127,397,185	84,691,184	90,240,146	75,696,557
Due other banks,.....	26,602,293	38,972,578	50,402,369	62,421,118	61,015,692	53,135,508	44,159,615
Other liabilities,.....	19,320,475	25,999,234	25,999,234	36,560,289	59,995,679	62,946,248	43,275,183
Aggregate of bank accounts,.....	816,047,441	974,643,887	1,205,879,136	1,372,826,745	1,321,535,910	1,371,008,531	1,286,292,796
Do. of investments supposed to yield income,.....	342,806,331	390,156,804	493,385,000	567,010,895	561,760,319	573,366,559	539,082,772
Excess of such do. beyond am't of cap. paid in,.....	142,800,387	158,906,467	241,409,708	276,238,804	243,180,261	246,234,047	200,640,080
Aggregate of deposits and circulation,.....	170,506,556	186,773,860	255,405,478	276,583,075	200,830,094	225,411,141	182,665,429
Do. of deposits, circ., and sums due other banks,.....	197,108,849	225,746,438	305,807,847	339,004,193	261,845,686	278,546,649	226,825,044
Do. of specie, specie funds, notes of other banks and sums due by other banks,.....	76,126,317	108,169,783	128,811,763	139,479,277	119,247,498	129,016,563	98,667,105
Excess of immediate liabilities over im. means,.....	120,982,532	117,576,655	176,996,084	199,524,916	142,598,258	149,530,086	128,157,939
Total of means of all kinds,.....	418,932,648	498,326,587	622,196,763	706,490,172	704,358,577	702,383,122	637,749,877
Tot. liabilities, exclusive of those to stockholders,.....	197,108,849	245,066,913	331,807,081	375,564,482	321,823,365	341,492,897	270,100,227
Do. of the banks to one another,.....	76,086,857	100,142,917	134,394,462	158,618,555	144,175,002	133,406,831	106,097,691
Do. to all, except other banks and stockholders,.....	121,121,992	144,923,996	281,404,712	313,143,364	260,825,773	288,357,389	270,100,227
Nett circulation,.....	72,684,651	82,606,194	108,185,900	112,652,363	91,174,653	107,798,029	86,170,680

MONEY TABLES.

Table to reduce Francs and Centimes to Dolls. and Cts.—Franc 18.75.

d. m.	cts.	frs.	cts.	frs.	cts.	frs.	cts.	frs.	cts.	frs.	cts.	frs.	cts.
5	1	1	19	29	5 44	57	10 69	85	15 94	1400	262 50	24000	4500 00
10	2	2	38	58	5 63	59	10 88	86	16 13	1500	281 25	25000	4687 50
15	3	3	56	76	5 81	59	11 06	87	16 31	1600	300 00	26000	4875 00
20	4	4	75	95	6 00	60	11 25	88	16 50	1700	318 75	27000	5062 50
25	5	5	94	114	6 19	61	11 44	89	16 69	1800	337 50	28000	5250 00
30	6	6	1 13	133	6 38	62	11 63	90	16 88	1900	356 25	29000	5437 50
35	7	7	1 31	151	6 56	63	11 81	91	17 06	2000	375 00	30000	5625 00
40	8	8	1 50	169	6 75	64	12 00	92	17 25	3000	562 50	31000	5812 50
45	9	9	1 69	187	6 94	65	12 19	93	17 44	4000	750 00	32000	6000 00
50	10	10	1 88	206	7 13	66	12 38	94	17 63	5000	937 50	33000	6187 50
55	11	11	2 06	224	7 31	67	12 56	95	17 81	6000	1125 00	34000	6375 00
60	12	12	2 25	243	7 50	68	12 75	96	18 00	7000	1312 50	35000	6562 50
65	13	13	2 44	261	7 69	69	12 94	97	18 19	8000	1500 00	36000	6750 00
70	14	14	2 63	280	7 88	70	13 13	98	18 38	9000	1687 50	37000	6937 50
75	15	15	2 81	298	8 06	71	13 31	99	18 56	10000	1875 00	38000	7125 00
80	16	16	3 00	317	8 25	72	13 50	100	18 75	11000	2062 50	39000	7312 50
85	17	17	3 19	335	8 44	73	13 69	200	37 50	12000	2250 00	40000	7500 00
90	18	18	3 38	354	8 63	74	13 88	300	56 25	13000	2437 50	41000	7687 50
95	19	19	3 56	373	8 81	75	14 06	400	75 00	14000	2625 00	42000	7875 00
99	20	20	3 75	391	9 00	76	14 25	500	93 75	15000	2812 50	43000	8062 50
	21	21	3 94	410	9 19	77	14 44	600	112 50	16000	3000 00	44000	8250 00
	22	22	4 13	429	9 38	78	14 63	700	131 25	17000	3187 50	45000	8437 50
	23	23	4 31	447	9 56	79	14 81	800	150 00	18000	3375 00	46000	8625 00
	24	24	4 50	466	9 75	80	15 00	900	168 75	19000	3562 50	47000	8812 50
	25	25	4 69	484	9 94	81	15 19	1000	187 50	20000	3750 00	48000	9000 00
	26	26	4 88	503	10 13	82	15 38	1100	206 25	21000	3937 50	49000	9187 50
	27	27	5 06	521	10 31	83	15 56	1200	225 00	22000	4125 00	50000	9375 00
	28	28	5 25	540	10 50	84	15 75	1300	243 75	23000	4312 50	100000	18750 00

Table to reduce British Sterling to Dollars and Cents.—£ \$4.44.

d. ct. m.	s.	cts.	stg.	cts.	stg.	cts.	stg.	cts.	stg.	cts.	stg.	cts.	stg.	cts.	stg.	cts.
1	9	1	22	£ 1	4 44	£21	93 33	£41	182 22	£61	271 11	£81	360 00	£100	444 44	
2	3	2	44	2	8 89	22	97 78	42	186 67	62	275 56	82	364 44	102	458 89	
3	5	3	67	3	13 33	23	102 22	43	191 11	63	280 00	83	368 89	103	463 33	
4	7	4	89	4	17 78	24	106 67	44	195 56	64	284 44	84	373 33	104	467 78	
5	9	5	1 11	5	22 22	25	111 11	45	200 00	65	288 89	85	377 78	105	472 22	
6	11	6	1 33	6	26 67	26	115 56	46	204 44	66	293 33	86	382 22	106	476 67	
7	13	7	1 56	7	31 11	27	120 00	47	208 89	67	297 78	87	386 67	107	481 11	
8	14	8	2 00	8	35 56	28	124 44	48	212 33	68	302 22	88	391 11	108	485 56	
9	16	9	2 22	9	40 00	29	128 89	49	216 67	69	306 67	89	395 56	109	490 00	
10	17	10	2 44	10	44 44	30	133 33	50	222 22	70	315 56	90	400 00	110	494 44	
11	20	11	2 67	11	48 89	31	137 78	51	226 67	71	320 00	91	404 44	111	498 89	
		12	2 89	12	53 33	32	142 22	52	231 11	72	324 44	92	408 89	112	503 33	
		13	3 11	13	57 78	33	146 67	53	235 56	73	328 89	93	413 33	113	507 78	
		14	3 33	14	62 22	34	151 11	54	240 00	74	332 22	94	417 78	114	512 22	
		15	3 56	15	66 67	35	155 56	55	244 44	75	336 67	95	422 22	115	516 67	
		16	3 78	16	71 11	36	160 00	56	248 89	76	340 00	96	426 67	116	521 11	
		17	4 00	17	75 56	37	164 44	57	253 33	77	344 44	97	431 11	117	525 56	
		18	4 22	18	80 00	38	168 89	58	257 78	78	348 89	98	435 56	118	530 00	
		19		19	84 44	39	173 33	59	262 22	79	353 33	99	440 00	119	534 44	
				20	88 89	40	177 78	60	266 67	80	357 78			120	538 89	

Table to reduce Sterling to Dollars and Cents.—£ Stg. at \$4.80.

d.	cts.	s.	cts.	stg.	cts.	stg.	cts.	stg.	cts.	stg.	cts.	stg.	cts.	stg.	cts.
1	2	1	24	£ 1	4 80	£31	100 80	£41	196 80	£61	292 80	£81	388 80	£100	480 00
2	4	2	48	2	8 00	32	105 60	42	201 60	62	297 60	82	393 60	102	486 00
3	6	3	72	3	12 00	33	110 40	43	206 40	63	302 40	83	398 40	103	491 00
4	8	4	96	4	16 00	34	115 20	44	211 20	64	307 20	84	403 20	104	496 00
5	10	5	1 20	5	24 00	35	120 00	45	216 00	65	312 00	85	408 00	105	501 00
6	12	6	1 44	6	28 80	36	124 80	46	220 80	66	316 80	86	412 80	106	506 00
7	14	7	1 68	7	33 60	37	129 60	47	225 60	67	321 60	87	417 60	107	511 00
8	16	8	1 92	8	38 40	38	134 40	48	230 40	68	326 40	88	422 40	108	516 00
9	18	9	2 16	9	43 20	39	139 20	49	235 20	69	331 20	89	427 20	109	521 00
10	20	10	2 40	10	48 00	40	144 00	50	240 00	70	336 00	90	432 00	110	526 00
11	22	11	2 64	11	52 80	41	148 80	51	244 80	71	340 80	91	436 80	111	531 00
		12	2 88	12	57 60	42	153 60	52	249 60	72	345 60	92	441 60	112	536 00
		13	3 12	13	62 40	43	158 40	53	254 40	73	350 40	93	446 40	113	541 00
		14	3 36	14	67 20	44	163 20	54	259 20	74	355 20	94	451 20	114	546 00
		15	3 60	15	72 00	45	168 00	55	264 00	75	360 00	95	456 00	115	551 00
		16	3 84	16	76 80	46	172 80	56	268 80	76	364 80	96	460 80	116	556 00
		17	4 08	17	81 60	47	177 60	57	273 60	77	369 60	97	465 60	117	561 00
		18	4 32	18	86 40	48	182 40	58	278 40	78	374 40	98	470 40	118	566 00
		19	4 56	19	91 20	49	187 20	59	283 20	79	379 20	99	475 20	119	571 00
				20	96 00	50	192 00	60	288 00	80	384 00			120	576 00

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES FOR 1839.

The annual statement of the commerce and navigation of the United States for the year ending September 30, 1839 :

The imports during the year have amounted to \$162,092,132, of which there was imported in American vessels, \$143,874,252, and in foreign vessels \$18,217,880. The exports during the year have amounted to \$121,028,416, of which \$103,533,891 were of domestic, and \$17,494,525 of foreign articles. Of the domestic articles, \$82,127,514 were exported in American vessels, and \$21,406,377 in foreign vessels. Of the foreign articles, \$12,660,434 were exported in American vessels, and \$4,834,091 in foreign vessels. 1,491,279 tons of American shipping entered, and 1,477,928 tons cleared from the ports of the United States. 624,814 tons of foreign shipping entered, and 611,839 tons cleared during the same period.

The registered tonnage, is stated at..... 834,244 54.95
The enrolled and licensed tonnage at..... 1,153,551 85.95
And fishing vessels at..... 108,682 34.95

Tons,..... 2,096,478 81.95

Of the registered and enrolled tonnage, amounting, as before stated, to 1,987,796 47.95
There were employed in the whale fishery,..... 131,845 25.95

The total tonnage of shipping built in the United States during the year ending the 30th of September, 1839 :

Registered,..... 55,065 47.95
Enrolled,..... 65,922 82.95

Tons,..... 120,988 34.95

A Table showing the amount of specie imported into the United States from different countries, from 1821 to 1838.

Years.	Europe.	European Atlantic islands.	Africa.	Asia.	South America.	W. Indies & American colonies.	Total.
1821	\$4,289,018	\$43,306	\$69,136	\$91,378	\$229,552	\$3,342,500	\$8,064,890
1822	702,800	23,146	47,004	26,223	870,582	1,700,091	3,369,846
1823	1,140,614	31,596	51,883	112,003	2,082,800	1,679,000	5,097,896
1824	1,295,665	60,991	40,662	105,237	3,944,639	2,932,641	8,379,835
1825	350,802	36,907	65,510	94,615	3,698,176	1,904,755	6,150,765
1826	720,908	32,414	15,252	90,272	4,179,788	1,842,332	6,880,966
1827	546,159	71,387	82,024	62,666	5,704,099	1,684,795	8,151,130
1828	370,328	39,789	61,229	37,795	5,533,784	1,446,816	7,489,741
1829	198,023	19,728	70,995	10,381	5,673,194	1,431,291	7,403,612
1830	290,762	31,797	59,321	96,542	6,156,927	1,520,615	8,155,964
1831	314,856	44,194	44,716	46,289	5,307,604	1,548,286	7,305,945
1832	161,429	42,311	23,999	43,365	4,257,159	1,379,241	5,907,504
1833	146,305	14,820	30,508	35,952	5,240,961	1,601,822	7,070,368
1834	7,641,426	24,735	50,752	8,585	8,227,211	1,958,923	17,911,632
1835	1,978,334	17,937	88,416	16,135	9,820,279	1,210,286	13,131,447
1836	7,179,414	6,619	105,116	4,879	5,019,922	1,084,931	13,400,881
1837	1,276,408	18,037	54,090	11,357	5,924,569	3,231,953	10,516,414
1838	11,464,517	9,929	75,607	34,684	3,656,114	2,506,265	17,747,116
	40,067,768	569,703	1,036,220	928,358	85,527,360	34,006,543	162,135,952

CHINA TRADE.

A statement exhibiting a view of the direct trade between the United States and China, from 1821 to 1839, containing the aggregate of exports, imports, and tonnage, for each year, with the number of men and vessels employed, as presented to Congress, June 16, 1840.

Year ending 30th September.	Value of exports to China.			Value of imports.	Tonnage employed.					
	Domestic produce, &c.	Foreign merchandise, &c.	Total.		Cleared.			Entered.		
					Ves. sels.	Ton- nage.	Men.	Ves. sels.	Ton- nage.	Men.
1821	388,535	3,902,025	4,290,560	3,111,951	16	6,040	302	15	5,622	281
1822	429,230	5,506,138	5,935,368	5,242,536	22	8,135	406	26	9,622	481
1823	288,375	4,347,686	4,636,061	6,511,425	26	9,478	473	35	13,067	653
1824	330,466	4,970,705	5,301,171	5,618,502	26	9,563	478	28	10,518	525
1825	160,059	5,410,456	5,570,515	7,533,115	23	8,667	433	36	13,468	673
1826	242,451	2,324,193	2,566,644	7,422,186	13	4,956	247	28	10,432	520
1827	290,862	3,573,543	3,864,405	3,617,183	24	8,950	447	24	8,889	444
1828	230,385	1,252,417	1,482,802	5,339,108	9	3,664	183	27	9,981	499
1829	260,759	1,094,103	1,354,862	4,680,847	17	6,351	317	22	8,052	400
1830	156,290	585,903	742,193	3,878,141	9	3,501	175	23	8,598	429
1831	244,790	1,046,045	1,290,835	3,083,205	14	5,061	253	11	4,316	215
1832	336,162	924,360	1,260,522	5,344,907	19	7,232	361	30	11,149	557
1833	537,774	895,985	1,433,759	7,541,570	26	9,538	476	41	15,334	765
1834	255,756	754,727	1,010,483	7,892,327	22	8,123	405	43	15,550	775
1835	335,868	1,532,712	1,868,580	5,987,187	20	7,104	339	36	13,495	743
1836	341,563	852,701	1,194,264	7,324,816	15	5,662	265	43	16,445	785
1837	318,973	311,618	600,591	8,965,337	9	3,793	175	42	16,160	738
1838	655,581	861,021	1,516,602	4,764,536	18	7,314	342	29	11,821	512
1839	430,464	1,103,137	1,533,601	3,678,509	15	6,419	279	18	7,392	321

A statement exhibiting the value of the exports of foreign merchandise and domestic produce to China, annually, from 1821 to 1839, distinguishing in the former the articles free, from those paying specific and ad valorem duties.

Year ending 30th Sept.	Value of foreign merchandise exported.				Value of domestic produce, &c.	Total value.
	Free of duty.	Paying duties ad val.	Paying specific duties.	Total value.		
1821	\$3,398,026	\$483,130	\$20,869	\$3,902,025	\$388,535	\$4,290,560
1822	5,081,620	356,623	67,895	5,506,138	429,230	5,935,368
1823	3,618,377	658,007	71,302	4,347,686	288,375	4,636,061
1824	4,489,933	418,670	62,102	4,970,705	330,466	5,301,171
1825	4,535,141	796,782	78,533	5,410,456	160,059	5,570,515
1826	1,729,364	463,752	131,077	2,324,193	242,451	2,566,644
1827	2,518,582	836,487	218,474	3,573,543	290,862	3,864,405
1828	476,556	670,031	105,830	1,252,417	230,385	1,482,802
1829	611,619	374,976	107,508	1,094,103	260,759	1,354,862
1830	121,599	414,296	50,008	585,903	156,290	742,193
1831	411,622	567,314	67,109	1,046,045	244,790	1,290,835
1832	472,540	360,393	91,427	924,360	336,162	1,260,522
1833	460,673	339,541	95,771	895,985	537,774	1,433,759
1834	525,163	204,097	25,467	754,727	255,756	1,010,483
1835	1,460,664	59,009	13,039	1,532,712	335,868	1,868,580
1836	705,589	120,054	27,058	852,701	341,563	1,194,264
1837	252,337	22,376	36,905	311,618	318,973	600,591
1838	797,355	39,874	23,792	861,021	655,581	1,516,602
1839	1,091,354	518	11,265	1,103,137	430,464	1,533,601

COMMERCE OF BOSTON FOR THE LAST TWENTY YEARS.

The number of foreign arrivals during the last twenty years was as follows:—1820, 816; 1821, 854; 1822, 763; 1823, 832; 1824, 852; 1825, 817; 1826, 870; 1827, 728; 1828, 680; 1829, 663; 1830, 642; 1831, 766; 1832, 1064; 1833, 1067; 1834, 1156; 1835, 1302; 1836, 1452; 1837, 1591; 1838, 1813; 1839, 1553; from January 1, to July 31, 1840, 839; during the corresponding time last year, 814—*increase, 25.*

CLEARANCES.—The number of foreign clearances during the last twenty years was: 1820, 531; 1821, 613; 1822, 584; 1823, 600; 1824, 633; 1825, 652; 1826, 614; 1827, 524; 1828, 527; 1829, 495; 1830, 561; 1831, 679; 1832, 943; 1833, 935; 1834, 1003; 1835, 1221; 1836, 1333; 1837, 1383; 1838, 1132; 1839, 1389; from January 1 to July 31, 1840, 746; during the same time last year, 770.

TONNAGE.—The registered and enrolled tonnage in the district of Boston, for the year 1820, was 153,087 tons. The registered and enrolled tonnage in Boston for the year 1839, was 205,009—*increase of tonnage, 51,922 tons.*

PROFORMA ACCOUNT OF A SHIPMENT OF RICE FROM CHARLESTON TO HAVRE.

Prepared for the Merchants' Magazine, by a Merchant of Charleston, S. C.

100 casks Carolina Rice,		
Reduced into 96 casks weighing gross lb.....	69,085	
Actual tare "	6,955	
Nett "	62,130 at 3 ct. lb.	\$1,863 90
<i>Charges.</i>		
Cost of 96 empty casks at 50 cents.....	\$48 00	
Cooperage, filling, &c. 20 "	19 20	
Wharfage, 4 "	3 84	
Cartage of 100 casks, 12½ "	12 50	
1 week storage, 8 "	8 00	
Insurance against fire, ½ per ct.....	2 33	
Bills of lading, postages, &c.....	4 03	
		97 90
		\$1,961 80
Marine insurance on \$2,157 98, including 10 per ct. imaginary profit at 1½ per ct.....	\$26 97	
Policy.....	1 25	
Commission, ½ per ct.....	7 19	
		35 41
		\$1,997 21
Commission for purchasing, 2½ per ct.....	49 93	
do for drawing bills, 1½ per ct. on \$2,078 31.....	31 17	
		\$2,078 31
Drawn on Paris at 60 days sight, at fs. 5 25.....	f. 10,911 19	
Banking commission in Paris, ½ per ct.....	54 56	
<i>Charges in Havre.</i>		
Freight at \$3 per 600 lbs. nett.....	\$310 65	
Primage, 5 per ct.....	15 53	
	\$326 18	
At fs. 5 25.....	1,712 45	
Duty on gross kil. 31,330 at fs. 2 75 per 100 k.....	f. 861 57	
Discount for cash, 1 per ct.....	8 62	
		852 95
		Carried forward. f. 13,531 15

	Brought over, f. 13 531 1	
Receiving, delivering, cartage, cooperage, labor, 1 month storage, &c.....	153 60	
Postages and small charges.....	10 15	
Insurance against fire, $\frac{1}{4}$ per ct. }		
Brokerage, $\frac{1}{4}$ " }	$2\frac{1}{2}$ per ct. on f. 14,064 08,.....	369 18
Discount of $4\frac{1}{2}$ months, $2\frac{1}{2}$ " }		
Total.....		f. 14,064 08
Weight in Havre, gross k. 31,330		
Tare, 12 per ct. 3,760		

Nett k. 27,570—costing in Havre, duty paid, f. 25 50.6 per 50 kil.
The Rice to remain unsold from 4 to 5 weeks.

PROFORMA ACCOUNT OF RICE FROM CHARLESTON TO ANTWERP.

100 casks Carolina Rice. (See preceding account to Havre.)
Total amount of invoice,..... \$2,078 31

Drawn on Paris at fs. 5 25,.....	f. 10,911 19
Banking commission in Paris, $\frac{1}{4}$ per ct.....	54 56
	f. 10,965 75

Reduced into current guilders at par, or fl. 47 $\frac{1}{4}$ per 100 francs,..... fl. 5,181 32

Charges at Antwerp.

Freight at \$3 per 600 lb. nett, corresponding to 46 $\frac{1}{2}$ shillings	
sterling per ton of 2240 lbs.....	\$310 65
Primage, 5 per ct.....	15 53
	\$326 18

At f. 5 25, and 47 $\frac{1}{4}$ fl. per f. 100,..... 809 13
Duty on gross k. 31,330
Tare 15 per ct. " 4,700

Nett k. 26,630 at 30 cents per 100 k.,.....	fl. 79 89
Syndicat, 13 per ct.....	10 39
Weighing, 2 cents per 100 k.....	6 27
Stamp, permit, &c.....	4 00

	100 55
Receiving, cartage, labor, stowing, &c.....	43 20
Delivering, weighing, and petty charges,.....	28 80
Storage one month at 4 cents per 100 k.....	12 53
Brokerage, $\frac{1}{4}$ per ct. }	
Insurance against fire, $\frac{1}{4}$ " }	$2\frac{1}{2}$ per ct.....
Discount of 4 months, 2 " }	182 80
Total.....	fl. 6,358 33

Gross weight in Antwerp, k. 31,330
Tare 12 per ct. 3,760

Nett k. 27,570

Costing in Antwerp, duty paid, fl. 11 53 per 50 kil., supposing the goods to remain about one month in store.

REMARKS.—In the above proforma accounts, no commission and guarantee, which, in Havre and Antwerp, amount to 3 per ct., have been calculated, in order to approach the nearest the actual cost. If the shipment is made by order of a European house, the calculation is correct to the smallest fraction; but if it is on account of the purchaser himself, the commission charged for buying will cover the one in Europe for selling. Supposing the rice to remain unsold for four or five weeks, the interest gained on 60 days drafts, which now are generally remitted by the steamers, is nearly compensated.

Rice bought in Charleston at the following prices, will stand in at Havre, at the rate of exchange on Paris of

	f. 5	5 05	5 10	5 15	5 20	5 25	5 30	5 35	5 40
cts 2	f. 18 37	f. 18 50	f. 18 63	f. 18 77	f. 18 90	f. 19 03	f. 19 17	f. 19 30	f. 19 43
2½	21 45	21 61	21 78	21 94	22 10	22 27	22 44	22 60	22 76
3	24 53	24 73	24 92	25 12	25 31	25 51	25 70	25 90	26 09
3½	27 61	27 84	28 07	28 29	28 52	28 74	28 97	29 19	29 42
4	30 70	30 95	31 21	31 46	31 72	31 98	32 23	32 49	32 75
4½	33 78	34 07	34 35	34 64	34 93	35 21	35 50	35 79	36 07
5	36 86	37 18	37 50	37 81	38 13	38 45	38 77	39 09	39 40
each ¼ ct.	1 54	1 56	1 57	1 59	1 60	1 62	1 63	1 65	1 66

Corresponding prices at Havre.

fs. 22	ct. 2 59	ct. 2 56	ct. 2 54	ct. 2 51	ct. 2 48	ct. 2 46	ct. 2 43	ct. 2 41	ct. 2 39
23	2 75	2 72	2 69	2 67	2 64	2 61	2 59	2 56	2 54
24	2 91	2 88	2 85	2 82	2 79	2 77	2 74	2 71	2 69
25	3 07	3 04	3 01	2 98	2 95	2 92	2 89	2 86	2 84
26	3 24	3 20	3 17	3 14	3 11	3 08	3 05	3 02	2 99
27	3 40	3 36	3 33	3 30	3 26	3 23	3 20	3 17	3 14
28	3 56	3 53	3 49	3 45	3 42	3 39	3 35	3 32	3 29
29	3 72	3 69	3 65	3 61	3 57	3 54	3 51	3 47	3 44
30	3 89	3 85	3 81	3 77	3 73	3 69	3 66	3 62	3 59
31	4 05	4 01	3 97	3 92	3 88	3 85	3 81	3 77	3 74
32	4 21	4 17	4 13	4 08	4 04	4 00	3 96	3 93	3 89
33	4 37	4 33	4 28	4 24	4 20	4 15	4 12	4 08	4 04
34	4 54	4 49	4 44	4 40	4 35	4 31	4 27	4 23	4 19
35	4 70	4 65	4 60	4 55	4 51	4 46	4 42	4 38	4 34
36	4 86	4 81	4 76	4 71	4 67	4 62	4 58	4 53	4 49
each f. ½	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08

The freight is calculated at \$3 per 600 lb. For every dollar more, add f. 1 06.

Rice bought at Charleston at the following prices, will stand in at Antwerp, at the Exchange on

Paris,.....	fs. 5 00	f. 5 05	f. 5 10	f. 5 15	f. 5 20	f. 5 25	f. 5 30	f. 5 35	f. 5 40
Amsterdam	ct. 42.33	ct. 41.91	ct. 41.50	ct. 41.10	ct. 40.70	ct. 40.31	ct. 39.91	ct. 39.56	ct. 39.19
London,.....	\$ 5 08	\$ 5 03	\$ 4 98	\$ 4 93	\$ 4 88½	\$ 4 83½	\$ 4 79½	\$ 4 74½	\$ 4 70½
or pr. ct.	114.3	113 1.6	112	111	109½	108½	107 4.5	106 4.5	105 4.5
ct. 2	f. 8 15	f. 8 21	f. 8 28	f. 8 34	f. 8 40	f. 8 46	f. 8 53	f. 8 59	f. 8 65
2½	9 61	9 69	9 77	9 84	9 92	10 00	10 08	10 15	10 23
3	11 07	11 16	11 26	11 35	11 44	11 53	11 62	11 71	11 81
3½	12 53	12 64	12 74	12 85	12 96	13 06	13 17	13 28	13 38
4	13 99	14 11	14 23	14 36	14 48	14 60	14 72	14 84	14 96
4½	15 45	15 59	15 72	15 86	15 99	16 13	16 27	16 40	16 54
5	16 91	17 06	17 21	17 36	17 51	17 66	17 81	17 96	18 11
each ¼	73	74	74	75	76	77	77	78	79

Corresponding prices at Antwerp.

f. 9	ct. 2 29	ct. 2 27	ct. 2 24	ct. 2 22	ct. 2 20	ct. 2 17	ct. 2 15	ct. 2 13	ct. 2 11
10	2 63	2 60	2 58	2 55	2 52	2 50	2 47	2 45	2 43
11	2 98	2 94	2 91	2 88	2 85	2 83	2 80	2 77	2 74
12	3 32	3 28	3 25	3 22	3 18	3 15	3 12	3 09	3 06
13	3 66	3 62	3 59	3 55	3 51	3 48	3 44	3 41	3 38
14	4 00	3 96	3 92	3 88	3 84	3 81	3 77	3 73	3 70
15	4 35	4 30	4 26	4 21	4 17	4 13	4 09	4 05	4 01
16	4 69	4 64	4 59	4 55	4 50	4 46	4 41	4 37	4 33
17	5 03	4 98	4 93	4 88	4 83	4 78	4 74	4 69	4 65
18	5 37	5 32	5 26	5 21	5 16	5 11	5 06	5 01	4 96
each ½	17	17	17	17	16	16	16	16	16
¼	09	09	08	08	08	08	08	08	08

The above is calculated at the freight of \$3 per 600 lb. For every dollar more, add f. —.50 to the above cost at Antwerp.

REMARKS ON THE FOREGOING TABLES.

They are calculated upon the preceding Proforma Accounts, including all charges, except commission and guarantee at the place of sale.

The first part shows the cost at Havre or Antwerp, at a given price and rate of exchange at Charleston. The second gives the corresponding value of prices quoted in the same European markets, and instruct us how much may be paid in Charleston to make the rice stand in, at the said quotation, or how much the same will nett.

In the tables for Antwerp, it will be found whether it is more profitable to draw on London, Paris, or Amsterdam. In the first case, the exchange between London and Antwerp is reckoned at the fixed rate of fl. 12 per £; and in the second, fl. 47½ are taken for fs. 100.

To avoid the repetition of fractions, the last line gives the amount to be added to the cost, for each fractional part, enabling the reader to find the cost for any price whatever. As, for instance, rice bought at Charleston at 3½ cents, exchange fs. 5 20. It will cost in Havre at 3½ cents, according to the table,..... fs. 28 51

Add for ½ cent. one half of ¼ = f. 1 60,..... 80

Total,..... f. 29 31

And supposing the freight to be \$3½ per 600 lbs., add..... 53

per 50 k.,..... f. 29 84

To find the corresponding value of fs. 30 25, exchange fs. 5 10,

Take for fs. 30,..... ets. 3 81 } ets. 3 85—price which may be paid in
and the proportion for 25 cent., " 04 } Charleston.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TO GUIDE OWNERS AND CAPTAINS OF VESSELS BOUND TO THE BRAZILIAN PORTS.

To despatch a vessel at the office of the Consulate of Brazil, are necessary :

Three copies of the manifest, one certified at the customhouse.

The invoice of *all*, and *every shipper*.

Bills of lading.

Bill of health.

List of crew ; and passengers, if any, must take passports.

It is also necessary to give three days' notice at the consulate, of the intended departure of vessels, for any port in Brazil.

ART. 146. The master of any vessel sailing with a cargo for any of the Brazilian ports, ought to bring two copies of his manifest, exactly alike, which must contain :

Sec. 1. The name, description, and tonnage of the vessel.

Sec. 2. The master's name, with the date at the end, and his signature.

Sec. 3. The port where he took the cargo, stated in the manifest.

Sec. 4. The port or ports said cargo is bound to.

Sec. 5. The marks, countermarks, number of packages, and their descriptions, such as bales, boxes, chests, pipes, half pipes, barrels, tierces, &c.

Sec. 6. A declaration of the quantity and quality of the merchandise in each package as near as possible, or of several homogeneous packages with the same mark, and of the goods stowed loose.

Sec. 7. The names of the shippers and consignees, or whether they are to order. Every thing must be written in words at length, except the numbers of the packages, and on entire sheets of paper not pieced to one another.

ART. 147. When a vessel has taken cargo at more than one port, she ought to bring a manifest from each one of the ports whereat she may have received shipment.

ART. 148. At the end of the manifests, the master shall state the number of passengers, both cabin and steerage ones, and make all other declarations he may deem re-

quisite for his safety and good faith, even acknowledging any packages that may be short of, or over and above the manifest, accounting for such deficiency or excess, under the certainty, that nothing of what he may afterwards allege shall release him from responsibility: nor shall he stand exonerated by means of the vague declarations usually made of not being answerable for deficiency or difference.

ART. 149. At the time of the visit, the master shall hand to the Guardamor a list of the baggage belonging to the private use of each passenger, every list being signed by its owner, in order that by this list, the discharge may be effected at the customhouse, and the delivery of what be free of duty may be granted after the examination made by the competent officers, in virtue of an order from the collector; said lists returning to the *Mesa Grande*, (collector's table,) to be examined and laid by. If the baggage belong to colonists or emigrants coming to settle in the country, the examination thereof shall be made on board.

ART. 150. As soon as the master of any vessel bound for the ports of the Brazilian Empire shall have completed his shipment at the port or ports he is to sail from, and made up the manifest in the manner directed by Art. 146, he is to produce the copies of said manifest to the Brazilian consul residing at such port, or to his deputy, that he may certify, should they contain the declarations and formalities required by these regulations, numbering and signing all their leaves, drawing a dash on the blanks, that nothing else may be thereto added, and certifying at the end that such manifest is in due form, without erasures, interlineations or corrections, nor any thing that may create a doubt as to its clear purport; after which he will deliver them to the master of the vessel, one copy open, and the other put up in a letter closed and sealed with the consular seal, and directed to the collector of the customhouse, at the port where such vessel is bound to.

ART. 151. In those ports where there is no Brazilian consul, or any person acting as such, the manifest shall be certified and closed by two Brazilian merchants therein residing, and in default of them, by two merchants of the country; and the signatures both of the latter and of the former, must be authenticated by the proper local authority.

ART. 152. If the manifest which the master has to produce certified by the Brazilian consul, or the person who has acted as such, contain any defect or irregularity which he ought to have prevented or caused to be corrected before setting to it the certificate, he alone shall be responsible for it, and not the master of the vessel.

ART. 153. But if it be found out that the defect or irregularity was committed subsequently to the consul's approval, the guilt shall fall on the master; the same will be the case if the manifest shall have been certified by Brazilian or foreign merchants, whether the defect or irregularity be known to have preceded or followed the approbation.

ART. 154. If it happen that a ship or vessel proceeding with a destination and manifest for any one port of the empire, lands at a foreign port a part of her cargo included in the manifest, the master is to bring from that port a manifest in duplicate of the goods unladen, accompanied with the same forms prescribed in the foregoing articles. When the discharge be made at a Brazilian port, and the remainder of the cargo be carried on to another Brazilian port, the customhouse shall furnish the master with such certificates as will prove the discharge at the port to which he directs his course.

ART. 155. Wherein it be ascertained that the vessel brought a greater quantity of merchandise than what appears from the manifest, and the declaration thereto added by the master, such merchandise as may be found over and above that quantity shall be seized and distributed among the captors, the master paying to the national treasury a fine equal to one half the value thereof, and the captors paying the usual duties.

ART. 156. If less quantity of goods be found than what is shown by the manifest, and the declaration thereto added by the master, the missing goods shall be deemed as concealed or removed, and the master shall forfeit the value thereof for the benefit of those who may discover the deficiency, and half the value as a fine to the national treasury; and these condemnations will take place by the mere fact of the discovery of an excess or deficiency, although the concealment or removal of the goods may not otherwise be proved. But the dispositions of this and the other article only apply to such goods as can be counted in the act of their being received on board, for with regard to those which come in boxes, or in bales, the master is only answerable for the excess and deficiencies of packages. On bulky goods which are cleared by measure or weight, and which are liable to waste or increase, as salt jerk beef, &c., the penalty of this and the preceding article, shall not be imposed, except on the differences of 5 per cent. more or less than what is shown by the manifest.

ART. 157. For every difference in the quality of the package, or in the mark, the master is to pay two mil reis fine, although in every thing else the discharge should agree with the manifest.

ART. 158. A vessel departing in ballast from a foreign port, bound to some one of the Brazilian ports, shall bring a certificate so to prove it, drawn up in the same form, and with the like authenticity as the manifests; and if the departure be from a Brazilian port, she must bring a certificate from the customhouse, under penalty of paying in either case a fine of from 100 to 500 mil reis.

ART. 159. Any master of vessel who shall fail to bring the manifest and certificates in the manner specified in this chapter, or who shall bring open the copy of the manifest received by him closed up, shall pay a fine of from 100 to 1000 mil reis, at the judgment of the collector, according to the quality of the misdemeanor, and regard being had to the amount of the cargo; and only after payment of the forfeiture shall he be admitted to effect the unloading. In case of bringing a single copy of the manifest, he shall forfeit 50 mil reis. Vessels coming from fishing voyages, are excepted with regard to the produce thereof, as they are not obliged to bring a manifest.

ART. 160. Should the master come without a manifest, the vessel shall be admitted to unload, by paying a fine of four mil reis for every ton of her admeasurement.

ART. 161. The vessel remains mortgaged to the payment of the fines imposed on the master by these regulations, and shall not be released to leave the port, without the fine or fines being first paid, or the necessary sum deposited for the purpose.

Vessels sailing from the aforesaid ports one month after such publication, shall remain subject to the herein above mentioned dispositions.

Those consuls and vice-consuls who shall fail to comply with the injunctions contained in the present chapters, shall be liable, for the first time, to a fine of from 100 to 500 mil reis, to be imposed upon them by the Treasury court, (Tribunal do Thesouro,) and in case of relapsing, they shall be dismissed from office.

Consulate General of the Empire of Brazil,

DIONIZIO DE AZEVEDO PECANHA.

New York, 1840.

QUARANTINE REGULATIONS AT CADIZ.

The following copy of a decree has been received at Lloyd's from the British Consul at Cadiz :—

“The Provisional Board of Health, on the 1st of this month, communicates to the Board of Trade as follows :—

“In consequence of there being in the Lazzaretto at Malta, under quarantine, an English vessel from Alexandria, attacked by the plague, the Supreme Board of Health has commanded, by an order dated the 22d of May last, which I have just received, that all vessels arriving in our ports from that island shall be considered as having unclean bills of health, so long as the above-mentioned vessel shall continue in that state; which, with the concurrence of the said Board of Trade, is hereby made public, for the information and government of the mercantile community.”

“JOSE MARIA AGUAYO,

‘JUNE 6, 1840.

“Accountant Secretary.”

TO SUBSCRIBERS.

Extract of a Circular from the Postmaster General.

“Postmasters may enclose money in a letter to the publisher of a newspaper, (or magazine,) to pay the subscription of a third person, and frank the letter if written by himself.”

Some subscribers may not be aware of the above regulations. It will be seen, that by requesting the postmaster where they reside, to frank their letters containing subscription money, he will do so upon being satisfied that the letter contains nothing but what refers to the subscription.